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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

THIRTY-FOURTH ANNUAL CONVENTION

OF THE

ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

IN SESSION WITH THE

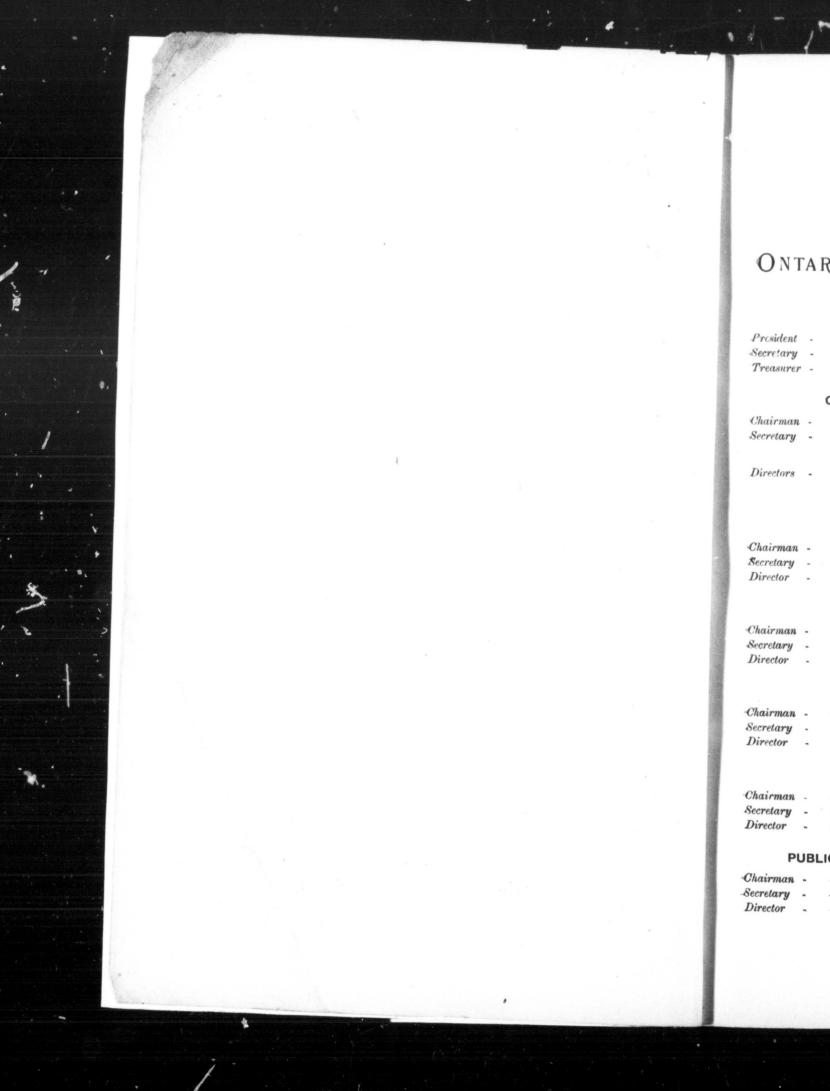
DOMINION EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

HELD IN

TORONTO,

ON THE 16th, 17th, AND 18th APRIL, 1895.

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OF THE

THIRTY-FOURTH ANNUAL CONVENTION

OF THE

ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

IN SESSION WITH THE

DOMINION EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

MINUTES OF THE GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

The opening meeting of the Convention was held in the Public Hall of the Education Department, Toronto, on Tuesday evening, April 16th, 1895.

On the platform were the following gentlemen :---

Hon. Dr. Ross, Minister of Education, Chairman; His Worship Mayor Kennedy; S. F. Lazier, LL.B., President Ontario Educational Association; President Loudon, of the University of Toronto; Chancellor Rand, of McMaster University; Dr. McLellan, Principal School of Pedagogy; A. H. McKay, M.A., Chief Superintendent of Education, Nova Scotia; R. W. Doan, Secretary Ontario Educational Association; G. W. Parmelee, of Montreal; Colonel the Honorable James Baker, Minister of Education, British Columbia.

The meeting was opened by a short address from the Chairman, HON. DR. Ross.

Addresses of welcome were delivered by His Worship Mayor Kennedy; Mr. S. F. Lazier, M.A., LL.B., President of the Ontario Educational Association ; Dr. James Loudon, President of the University of Toronto; to which replies were made on behalf of the Dominion Educational Association by Hon. Dr. Ross, President, and by Colonel the Hon. James Baker, Mr. Parmalee, and Dr. A. H. McKay, representing respectively British Columbia, Quebec and Nova Scotia.

Upon adjournment of the meeting, a conversazione was held in the Departmental Buildings.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH, 1895.

The Convention met in the Young Women's Christian Guild Hall at 8 p.m.

PRESIDENT LAZIER in the chair.

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On the platform were the Secretary, Hon. Dr. Ross, Col. Hon. James Baker, Dr. McLellan, Dr. Adams, Dr. McKay, Dr. Rand and Mr. Parmelee.

After prayer by Rev. Dr. Burwash, closing with the Lord's Prayer in concert, the President introduced Dr. McKay, who read a paper on

" Three Great Reforms-How we may hasten them." A paper was also read by Rev. Thos. Adams on "College Discipline,"

followed by an address by Mr. A. E. Winship, of Boston.

The PRESIDENT then announced that some general business of the Association must be transacted. On motion the minutes of last meeting were taken as read.

On motion of MR. MCALLISTER, fraternal greetings were ordered to he sent to the British Educational Union, now in session. Nominations of officers were then made.

DR. MCLELLAN nominated Prof. Baker, of the University of Toronto, as President. This nomination was seconded, and as there were no others, Prof. Baker was declared elected.

MR. Doan was unanimously re-elected as Secretary.

MR. Hendry was re-elected as Treasurer without opposition.

MR. HENDRY read his report as Treasurer, and moved that it be referred to an Auditing Committee selected by the chair.

The PRESIDENT nominated as Auditing Committee Messrs. C. Barnes, S. B. Sinclair and A. MacIntosh.

MR. F. F. MANLEY introduced his motion in reference to Pension and Annuity Fund, of which he had given notice last year.

Discussion of the motion followed, in which Messrs. Manley, Doan, Aylesworth, Robertson, McElroy and others took part. Mr. DOAN seconded Mr. Manley's motion.

On motion the discussion was postponed until the next evening. The meeting adjourned at eleven o'clock.

THURSDAY, APRIL .18TH, 1895.

The Convention met in the Normal School Hall, Hon. Dr. Ross in the chair.

REV. DR. MILLIGAN opened the proceedings with prayer.

SECRETARY DOAN read the minutes of last meeting which were adopted.

MR. A. MC The motion

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COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

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MR. A. MCKENZIE read the Auditor's report, and moved its adoption. The motion was seconded by Mr. Suddaby and carried.

The Secretary announced that in obedience to the request of the meeting he had sent a cablegram to the National Union of Teachers of England and Wales, conveying the cordial greetings of the Dominion and Ontario Educational Associations in Convention assembled, and in reply, he had received the following cable message from Manchester, England: "President Educational Association Conference, Toronto. Your fellow members of one profession and one empire send greetings and good-will. (Signed) President National Union of Teachers England and Wales."

HON. MR. BAKER then delivered an address on the "Diagnosis of Brain Power."

Addresses were also delivered by Dr. J. M. Harper, of Quebec, and Mr. George J. Oulton, of Dorchester, N.B., on "Some Pedagogic Fallacies" and "The Brotherhood of Teachers," respectively, after which the proceedings closed with the singing of the National Anthem.

MINUTES OF THE COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH, 1895.

The College and High School Department met at 9.30 a.m., the Chairman, DR. MCLELLAN, in the Chair.

The minutes of the last annual meeting were read and approved.

MR. MCMURCHY, on behalf of the Committee on Medical Matriculation, reported that the Committee had had several interviews with the authorities of Medical Education, but had not been able to effect anything.

MR. WISMER, on behalf of the newly formed Commercial Association, informed the Department that the Commercial Association desired to become part of the Department, and MR. W. J. ROBERTSON made a similar statement on behalf of the Historical Association for ned last summer.

Moved by MR. ROBERTSON, and seconded by MR. CHASE, that the College and High School Department recognize the Historical Association as an integral part of this Department.

Moved by MR. MANLEY, and seconded by Dr. BIRCHARD, that the motion stand as a notice of motion to be taken up next year.

Both motions being put to the meeting were declared lost.

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Moved by MR. WISMER, and seconded by MR. FESSENDEN, that the Commercial Section just organized be recognized as an integral part of the College and High School Department of the Ontario Educational Association.

The motion being put was declared carried.

MR. MANLEY and MR. COLBECK called for the yeas and nays, and the Chairman ruled that they be taken, but it was found that no list of members was on hand.

Moved by MR. EMBREE, and seconded by MR. STRONG, that the further consideration of these questions be deferred till to-morrow morning. Carried.

Moved by MR. ELLIS, and seconded by MR. PRENDERGAST, that in the opinion of this Department it is not for the best interests of the High Schools that the subject of physical exercise should be a compulsory subject on the programme of work for High Schools.

Discussion on the subject was deferred.

The Chairman then gave his address on "Co-ordination and Concentration."

The Department adjourned.

THURSDAY, APRIL 18TH, 1895.

The Department reassembled at 9.30 a.m., with DR. McLELLAN im the Chair.

Chairman.	•••	•••	•	• •	• •	•	•	•				•	 Re	v.	Dr.	Burwash.
Secretary.	•••	• •	•	• •	•	•	•	•	• •		•	•	F.	F.	Ma	nley, M.A.

The questions deferred from yesterday were then taken up.

The motion to admit the Historical Association was voted on and declared carried.

The motion to admit the Commercial Association was voted on and declared carried.

MR. GRANT gave notice that he would move at the next annual session the following amendments to the constitution :---

That Article II. shall read as follows: "All persons engaged in teaching in any of the Universities, Colleges or High Schools of Ontario, who have registered and paid their fees to the Ontario Educational Association for the current year, and such other persons as may be elected by this Department on the recommendation of its Executive, may become members of this Department. The membership fee of this Department shall be twenty-five cents."

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That Arti the Board o this Depart officio, and f Department. DR. BURW

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COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

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engaged in s of Ontario, Educational s as may be s Executive, rship fee of That Article III. shall read as follows: "The officers of this Department shall consist of a President, a Vice-President, a Secretary-Treasurer, who with a representative from each of the Associations forming an integral part of this Department, shall be the Executive of this Department."

That Article IV. shall read as follows: "That the representatives on the Board of Directors of the Ontario Educational Association from this Department shall be the President, the Secretary-Treasurer *ex officio*, and four other members to be elected annually by ballot by this Department."

DR. BURWASH then read his paper on "The Economics of Education in Ontario."

Moved by MR. EMBREE, and seconded by MR. FRASER, that the Minister of Education be requested to take such steps as he may deem necessary to distribute amongst the members of the Legislature, city and town Councils and Boards of Education, copies of the paper just read by Dr. Burwash on the Economics of Education. Carried.

Moved by MR. MANLEY, and seconded by DR. BIRCHARD, that in the opinion of this College and High School Department, no one should be appointed professor, lecturer or tutor on the staff of the Provincial University who has not served as a legally qualified High School or Collegiate Institute teacher.

The motion was withdrawn.

Moved by MR. HAGARTY, and seconded by MR. WRIGHT, that it be a suggestion to the Deputy Minister of Education that in future in sending out proposed or authorized regulations sufficient copies be sent to the Principals to provide each assistant with one. Lost.

The motion of MR. ELLIS proposed yesterday regarding physical training was taken up, and after discussion was passed in the following form: That while recognizing the importance of physical training in the High Schools, this Department is of the opinion that the time allotted to this subject, and the character of the exercise, should be left to the discretion of the Principals.

MR. EMBREE presented the report of the Committee on Pass and Honor Courses in the University of Toronto :---

Your Committee met at the Education Department, January 12th, 1895. Present : Messrs. Dale, Henderson, DeLury, Gibbard, Embree.

The following resolutions were adopted and ordered to be transmitted to the Senate of the University:

1. That in lieu of the present pass course a general proficiency course be arranged to comprise the subject of English in all the years, and such

other subjects as may be selected to make it equivalent, as far as possible, to any of the special or so-called honor courses.

2. That students be permitted to rank in honors in this course as in the special courses.

3. That the subjects in this general course be, as far as possible, fixed for the first two years.

4. That for the third and fourth years the subjects be divided into the following groups:-(a) Classical-Latin, Greek and Ancient History; (b) Modern-French, German and Modern History; (c) Mathematical-Mathematics and Physics; (d) Scientific-Biology, Chemistry, Geology and Mineralogy; (e) Philosophical-Metaphysics, Ethics, Logic and Poli-

5. That all students in this course be required to take two of these groups, of which group (a) or group (b) shall be one.

6. That the two groups selected must be continued for both years. 7. That in the first and second years the rank in the honor list be determined by the combined standing in all the subjects taken, and in the third and fourth years there be an honor list for each group.

It was also recommended that the number of honor classes and the system of ranking in honors be the same in the fourth year as in the other years of each course in the University.

The resolutions were sent to members of the Committee who were not present at the meeting, for their opinions and suggestions, and were afterwards, along with suggestions of members, forwarded to Mr. Dale for presentation to the Senate.

Submitted.

L. E. EMBREE,

Convener.

Moved by MR. HAGARTY, and seconded by MR. HENDERSON, that the report be adopted.

Moved in amendment by Mr. FRASER, and seconded by MR. SQUAIR, that since the report has been already transmitted to the Senate, the Secretary be instructed to communicate with the Senate and to inform that body of the facts connected with the preparation of the report.

Moved in amendment to the amendment by MR. W. J. ROBERTSON, and seconded by MR. SQUAIR, that we reaffirm the general principle of

the establishment of a general course in the University of Toronto. Amendment to amendment carried.

Department adjourned.

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MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

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EMBREE, Convener.

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MR. SQUAIR, the Senate, the and to inform the report. ROBERTSON, l principle of Toronto.

MINUTES OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

Ninth Meeting.

TUESDAY, APRIL 16TH, 1895.

The President, MR. J. SQUAIR, took the chair at 10 a.m., and delivered his inaugural address on the subject of "French Poetry sincethe Romantics." A short address in French by M. Queneau, on the same subject, followed.

Mr. S. J. Radcliffe, London, then read a paper on "A Consideration of the Report of the Committee of Ten on English."

It was moved by MR. M. F. LIBBY, seconded by MR. S. J. RADCLIFFE, That, in the opinion of this Association, it is a matter of regret that any attempt should be made to remove Grammar from our senior classes. Discussion followed, which was adjourned on motion of MR. I. M. LEVAN, seconded by Mr. A. W. WRIGHT.

Adjournment.

TUESDAY, APRIL 16TH, 2 P.M.

Mr. J. N. Dales, Kingston, read a paper on "A Development Study in French Tragic Drama : Corneille—Hugo."

A discussion on "Supplementary Reading—Its Theory and Practice," was introduced by Messrs. W. Pakenham, Brockville, and E. S. Hogarth, Hamilton. The discussion was participated in by many members of the Association.

On motion, Messrs. S. J. Radcliffe and T. A. Brough were appointed Auditors.

Adjournment.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH, 3 P.M.

A paper was read by Miss Gertrude Lawler, Toronto, on "The Function of English Poetry in the High School."

Mr. A. W. Wright, Galt, followed with a paper on "The Influence of French upon Lowland Scotch."

The discussion of Mr. Libby's motion, adjourned from a previous meeting, was resumed, and the motion was carried, on division, in the following form: That, in the opinion of this Association, it is a matter of regret that any attempt should be made to remove English Grammar and Philology from our senior classes.

The report of the Auditors was received and adopted, on motion of MR. J. D. CHRISTIE, seconded by MR. G. A. CHASE.

The following officers were elected for the year 1895-96 :---President, Mr. D. R. Keys; Vice-President, Mr. A. W. Wright; Secretary-Treasurer, Mr. W. H. Fraser; Councillors: Mr. J. Squair, Mr. Geo. E. Shaw, Mr. G. A. Chase, Miss H. Charles, Miss E. Balmer, Mr. W. S. McLay, Mr. M. F. Libby, Mr. T. A. Brough.

On motion of MR. W. H. FRASER, seconded by Mr. J. N. DALES, it was agreed to meet in conference with the Classical Association on matters of common interest on April 18th, at 4.30 p.m.

Adjournment.

THURSDAY, APRIL 18TH, 2 P.M.

Mr. J. Marshall, St. Thomas, read a paper on "The Importance of the Study of Grammar."

Miss A. E Marty, St. Thomas, followed with a paper on "Some Tendencies of the German Literature of the 19th Century."

Mr. W. H. Fraser was appointed as the representative of the Association on the Board of the College and High School Department, and also on that of the Ontario Educational Association.

Mr. A. H. Reynar read a paper on "Chaucer's Mind and Art."

On account of the lateness of the hour, the paper to be presented by Mr. J. Jeffries, Peterborough, on "Aims and Methods in the Teaching of English Grammar," was taken as read, and the Association adjourned to meet at the call of the Chair.

MINUTES OF THE MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL ASSOCIATION.

TORONTO, TUESDAY, APRIL 16TH, 1895.

The Association met at 2 p.m., in the Model School.

The Chair was taken by MR. A. T. DELURY, M.A., the President, and there were about thirty-five members present.

The minutes of the last annual meeting were read, and on motion confirmed.

The Honorary President, PROFESSOR ALFRED BAKER, M.A., of Toronto University, delivered an address on "The Life of Sir William

A vote of thanks was tendered the Honorary President. THE PRESIDENT then read his address.

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MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL ASSOCIATION.

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After expressing his thanks to the Association for the honor done him, he went on to indicate some ways in which the Association might extend its influence. Teachers have always found a difficulty in keeping abreast of the times in the matter of text-books. New books are constantly appearing, some of the highest value, and some, for one reason or another, of very little interest or use. A Committee of the Association might report each year on all, or the more important text-books, appearing during the year, and teachers would have knowledge as to the character and importance of the recent books on their subjects. The point next touched upon was the advisability of giving the work of the Association a somewhat more academic cast by having read before the Association papers which would present the results of original thinking and work in the more advanced mathematical and physical subjects. In all countries great progress in these branches has been, and is being made : it is necessary that Canadian teachers and students keep up at least with these advances. The teachers in any district might organize themselves to prosecute some special studies, and keeping up an interest by correspondence, or by coming together when possible or convenient work, to the limits in some special line. In doing this work, they would be stimulated to original investigation, and the Association could bring together and make accessible the results of their researches. The Universities should aid in this by placing at the disposal of such workers, their libraries and periodicals. Further, a Committee might report each year on the general progress in mathematical work, and recommend new works and methods.

It was moved by MR. GLASHAN, and seconded by MR. CHANT, that the Honorary President, the President, the Vice-President, the Secretary, Professor McKay, and Inspector Ballard, be a Committee to report on the best method of carrying out the suggestions contained in the address respecting the preparation of certain reports to this Association. Carried.

The meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH, 1895.

The Association resumed at 3 p.m., the President in the Chair. The Secretary read a letter from PROFESSOR DUPUIS of Queen's University, Kingston, stating that owing to an unexpected examination in connection with the University, it would be impossible for him to attend and deliver his address.

MR. R. A. THOMPSON, M.A., then read an address on "The Mathematical Curriculum in the Secondary Schools."

A discussion followed in which nearly all the members present joined.

It was moved by MR. MCMURCHY, seconded by MR. DAVISON, that Messrs. Baker, DeLury, Glashan, Birchard, McKay, Manley, and Chant, form a Committee to prepare a series of resolutions to be submitted by a deputation to the Minister of Education on the matter contained in the address of Mr. Thompson, and that the Committee report to-morrow.

The Association then adjourned to University College, where MR. C. A. CHANT, B.A., delivered a very interesting lecture on "Complementary Colours."

The lecture was rendered most effective by the aid of many illustrations and experiments.

A hearty vote of thanks was tendered to Mr. Chant.

The meeting then adjourned.

THURSDAY, APRIL 18TH, 1895.

The Association met at 2 p.m., the President in the Chair.

MR. A. H. McDougall, M.A., read his paper on the subject: "Has

Mathematical Education in Ontario declined during recent years?" After some discussion a vote of thanks was tendered Mr. McDougall.

The Committee on the President's address then presented the following report, which was read by PROFESSOR BAKER :-

It is desirable that a Committee be appointed to report annually on the best text-books issued on mathematical subjects; that the interest of graduates in some special line of the subject should be kept up, and might be greatly stimulated if they were appointed Examiners at the advanced University Examination in their own special line; and it is recommended that the following be a Committee to approach the University Senate on the subject, and to carry out generally the objects set forth in the President's address: Professors Baker, Dupuis, and McKay; Messrs. DeLury, Thompson, Ballard, Manley, Birchard, and

The Committee on "Curriculum" presented its report.

After some discussion and amendment the report was adopted as follows :-

1. That this Association express its dissatisfaction at the proposed new Curriculum as it affects the standard of mathematical work in our High Schools, and regrets that gentlemen who are actively engaged in

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he proposed work in our engaged in mathematical work in our High Schools do not appear to have been consulted in the preparation of the proposed Curriculum.

2. That in the opinion of this Association, Arithmetic should be continued through Forms III. and IV. of the High School course, and papers set upon Junior and Senior Leaving Examinations.

3. That the tendency of the limitations in the syllabus which are placed on mathematical work is to lower the standard in this department.

For example :

(a) The repetition of the word "easy" in different parts of the mathematical Curriculum.

(b) The omission of the "sphere" in Mensuration, "annuities" in Arithmetic, and "cube root" in Algebra.

4. That the limit in Algebra for the Primary Examination should be extended so as to include simple simultaneous equations.

5. That the Junior Leaving Euclid should be extended to include part of Book IV.; and that the Senior Leaving Euclid should include ratio and proportion, similar figures, theories of Ceva and Menelaus with applications, properties of triangles and quadrilaterals, harmonic properties of lines and circles, properties of two or more circles, poles and polars.

6. That the marks assigned in Mathematics are not proportionate to the importance of the subject.

7. That it is exceedingly desirable that a gentleman actively engaged in the teaching of Mathematics should be admitted, in an official way, to the Councils of the Education Department.

Professors Baker and McKay, Messrs. DeLury, Manley and Chant, were appointed a deputation to lay the resolutions contained in the report before the Honorable the Minister of Education.

The Association then elected the following officers for the ensuing year:—

Executive Committee :---C. L. Crassweller, B.A., Essex; I. J. Birchard, M.A., Ph.D., Toronto; R. A. Gray, B.A., London; M. Haight, B.A., Strathroy; A. H. McDougall, M.A., Ottawa.

Dr. Birchard was elected the representative of the Association on the Board of Directors of the General Association.

The meeting then adjourned.

TUESDAY, APRIL 16TH, 1895.

The Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association convened in the Gymnasium of the Normal School, Toronto, at

10.30 a.m. The President, MR. A. MCQUEEN, of London, in the chair. The following officers were also present-Mr. J. A. Hill, of Toronto, Vice-President; Mr. R. H. Cowley, of Ottawa, Director; Mr. W. H. Harlton, of Toronto, Treasurer; and Mr. D. Young, of Guelph,

The meeting was opened by reading the Scripture, and prayer by MR. ROBERT MCQUEEN, of Kirkwall.

The minutes of the last annual meeting having been printed in the proceedings were, on motion, taken as read and confirmed.

MR. W. L. MCKENZIE, of Toronto, was appointed Minute Secretary, and MR. REES, of Toronto, Press Reporter.

It was agreed that the Sessions should be from 9.30 to 12 a.m., and from 2 to 5 p.m.

On motion of MR. MCALLISTER, seconded by MR. HENDRY, copies of the proposed new regulations regarding the Public and High School Course were procured and distributed among the members.

MR. MCALLISTER presented the following report of the Committee appointed to place the resolutions, passed by the Public School Department at the annual meeting in the Easter week of 1894, before the

Your Committee, consisting of Messrs. McMillan, McQueen, Mc-Master, Young and McAllister, beg to report that they interviewed the Minister of Education on the 24th of November, 1894, and laid the several resolutions before him.

1. He acknowledged the desirability of extending the time for training students at the Normal Schools to one year, and led the Committee to infer that he would keep it in view.

2. He expressed his approval of the recommendation of two years'

preliminary training for those aiming to be teachers, provided it could be practically carried out. He thought it possible that the granting of an interim certificate for that period, during which those holding such certificates should teach under competent supervision, would accomplish the end we had in view.

3. In regard to our Public Schools being subsidiary to our High

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PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

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Schools, he maintained that our system is organic, and that the Public Schools are in the best possible position for the proper training of the children that attend them, quite irrespective of any preparation that has to be made for High School work; that the best possible condition for entrance to the High School is the best possible condition for training in our Public Schools, and if there were no High Schools in the country, he would not think it necessary to change the course of study in the Public Schools, except to add some training on elementary science and more literary culture.

4. Increased legislative aid to Public Schools, he thought, would come best in the form of increased facilities for the professional training of teachers.

5. He expressed himself as favorable to granting to rural teachers, who wish it, the right to take holidays to attend the Annual Convention.

6. He considered that Public School teachers were now fairly represented on the Boards that examine the papers of candidates at the High School Entrance and Public School Leaving Examinations, and he maintained the principle that the teachers receiving pupils as a result of examination should have a deciding voice in saying what their qualifications should be.

All which is respectfully submitted.

S. MCALLISTER,

Secretary.

TORONTO, 16th April, 1895.

On motion of MR. MCALLISTER, seconded by MR. BROWN of Madoc, the report was received.

The President then gave his annual address, outlining the work done during the year and the advantages to be gained by presenting Resolutions, unanimously adopted in the County Associations, to the Provincial Association for consideration, and then, if adopted, to the Minister of Education through a Committee appointed by the Provincial Association to lay such Resolutions before him with the points argued in favor of the same. He referred to the publication in pamphlet form of Mr. McMillan's address, and stated the main object of our Provincial Association should be, not so much improvement as the securing of better legislation, the perfecting of our Public School System of Education, and the raising of the status of the profession.

MR. MCMASTER then read a paper on "Entrance Examinations," which was followed by one on "Examiners at Entrance Examinations," by MR. R. P. EDDY of Claremont.

In both papers the points prominently brought out were,-

(1) That there is a gross lack of uniformity in valuing the answers of candidates in the different Boards of Examiners, the conditions depending largely on whether pupils were in demand or not at the High School where the pupils were examined.

(2) That, while the Inspector and Head Master of each High School must be Examiners at Entrance Examinations, for Public School teachers there was only the unfair provision that they might be appointed if a Board of Public School Trustees chose to do so, that in only a few cases was this taken advantage of, mainly in cities.

Moved by MR. EDDY, seconded by MR. MCMASTER, that i. the opinion of this Department, the School Law and Regulations, referring to the appointing of Boards of Examiners for the Entrance and Public School Leaving Examinations should be amended so that Public School teachers must be appointed, by Inspectors or otherwise, on every Board of Examiners, and that the number of Public School teachers on such Boards should be more proportionate to the number of High School teachers on the Boards of Examiners at the Departmental Examinations for certificates, and that in order to secure more uniformity, a central Board be formed in each County in which their is more than one place of Examination to make Regulations for, and revise, if necessary, the valuing of each paper.

TUESDAY, A.M., APRIL 16TH, 1895.

The meeting was called to order by the President at 2.20 p.m. The minutes of the previous session were read and confirmed. The Treasurer, MR. HARLTON of Toronto, presented the statement of Receipts and Expenditures, Public School Department, O. E. A.

RECEIPTS.

March 24, 1894—Balance from last Audit \$ 2 40 March 29, 1894—Dues collected by Secretary.. 23 00 _____\$25 40

EXPENDITURES.

Dec. 5, 1894—Paid Wm. Brigg's acct. (Printing) \$6 50 April 16, 1895—Paid D. Young's acct. (As. Sec'y) 9 80 _____\$16 30

Leaving a balance in Treasurer's hands of \$9 10

On motion the statement was referred to the Auditors, Mr. Cork, of Waterloo, and Mr. Gray, of Toronto. The Exec of the follo Teachers' A

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The Executive Committee reported having received notice of motion of the following resolution, passed unanimously by the Toronto Teachers' Association :—

That no teacher should be empowered to teach in our Public Schools who has not had the requisite professional training and that, therefore, the granting of professional certificates to teach in our Public Schools, to those students who pass successfully through the School of Pedagogy without a professional training obtained by attending a Normal School, is contrary to the best interests of Public School education in Ontario, and that the Secretary be instructed to forward a copy of this Resolution to the Secretary of the Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association, for the action of that body thereon.

MR. BAYNTON, of Waterdown, presented the report of the Committee of the Wentworth Teachers' Association on the Entrance Examination, 1894, suggesting the following :—

ARITHMETIC.

- (a) That the paper should consist of ten questions, valued ten marks each.
- (b) That the marks be apportioned as follows :-----
 - 1. To Technical Terms—ten per cent. of total marks.
 - 2. To Accuracy of Integral and Fractional Operations--twenty per cent.
 - 3. To Measurements—thirty per cent.
 - 4. To Commercial Arithmetic—forty per cent.
- (c) That no choice of questions should be allowed—thus avoiding the explanatory note at the head of the paper.
- (d) That Examiners be directed to give full marks to questions answered to the nearest cent in Commercial Arithmetic.

DRAWING.

- (a) That the free use of instruments in book-work and at the examination be allowed.
- (b) That the paper should always contain a test of freehand drawing. The Committee were of opinion that the 1894 Drawing Paper might be taken as a model, were it not for the note at the head of it.

GRAMMAR.

WRITING.

- (a) That there should be no questions on principles of writing until some well-defined system of principles is authorized to be taught in our Public Schools.
- (b) That the paper of 1894 contains too much work for the time allowed.

GEOGRAPHY.

- (a) That in question 5 (a) the words, "and with Australia," be struck out.
- (b) That the paper should contain more work on Canada.
- (c) That it should contain a test of map-drawing.
- (d) That the language should be more definite, see questions 4 and 6.

HISTORY.

That the Committee strongly approve of the apportionment giving two-thirds of the marks to Canadian History.

LITERATURE.

(a) That question (4) in A. be struck out.

- (b) That more care be exercised in the selection of the italicized portions.
- (c) That questions like (4) in B. are desirable as long as too difficult work is avoided.
- (d) That at least fifteen marks should be allowed for memorization.

On motion the report was received.

On motion of MR. McMASTER, of East Toronto, seconded by MR. HILL, of Toronto, it was decided to refer the resolutions to a committee.

The President appointed Messrs. McMaster, of East Toronto, Eddy, of Claremont, Baynton, of Waterdown, Wilkinson, of Brantford, and Groves, of Toronto, a Committee to consider the resolutions and report.

The Auditors reported that they had examined the Treasurer's books and had found them correct.

MR. STRACHAN, of Rockwood, read a paper on "Public School Leaving Examinations," and moved the following resolutions, which were seconded by MR. M. W. CAMPBELL, of St. Thomas.

(1) That the Public School Leaving Examination has, since its introduction, caused general dissatisfaction from the fact that the curriculum covers too much ground to be gone over thoroughly in one year and that the papers set for the examination have been too difficult. (2) That
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PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

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the curricuin one year difficult. (2) That the curriculum should be revised so that the work can be covered in one year.

(3) That any honors for Fifth class work should be participated in by all schools in which Fifth class work is successfully taught.

(4) That in the matter of Legislative grants, the Public Schools should be more liberally dealt with and that the proportion of eight or nine dollars to one dollar per pupil in favor of High Schools is too great.

On motion the resolutions were laid on the table to be discussed with those of the West Lambton Teachers' Institute.

On motion of MR. C. E. SMITH, of Chatham Model School, seconded by MR. FRASER, of Berlin, it was decided to have Mr. Strachan's paper published in the Proceedings.

The Session then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, A.M., APRIL 17TH, 1895.

The Department resumed at 9.45.

MR. HARLTON was appointed Press Reporter in the absence of MR. REES through illness.

Minutes of former Session were read and confirmed.

On motion of Mr. FRASER, of Berlin, seconded by Mr. GORDON, of Palmerston, it was affirmed that the Department was thoroughly in accord with the action of the Executive in the publication of Mr. McMillan's paper.

The Executive reported recommending that the resolution re History from Leeds Teachers' Institute, and Mr. Eddy's resolution re Entrance Examiners be discussed in connection with the West Lambton resolutions, and Mr. Strachan's resolutions on Public School Leaving Examinations.

ARITHMETIC.

1. That the paper should consist of ten questions. Candidate to take any eight.

2. That 50 per cent. of the value of the paper should be for commercial work, the remaining marks to be allotted according to the opinion of the Examiner.

3. That C be not adopted.

4. That D be adopted.

DRAWING.

That the suggestions on drawing be adopted.

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GRAMMAR.

That the Grammar paper be left to the judgment of the Examiners, but that as much prominence be given to original work as possible.

WRITING.

That the suggestions on writing be adopted.

GEOGRAPHY.

That (b), (c) and (d) be made general. That (a) be not adopted.

HISTORY.

Your Committee recommend that " at least " be added to suggestions.

LITERATURE.

Your Committee cannot recommend (a) or (b) or (c), but would suggest that more than eight marks be given for memorizing.

On motion the report was received.

On motion of MR. D. YOUNG, of Guelph, seconded by MR. FRASER, of Berlin, it was decided that the report be taken up subject by subject. After each suggestion had been discussed fully, on motion of MR.

MANNING, of Hamilton, seconded by MR. E. T. YOUNG, of Guelph, it was decided that the report as a whole be adopted. The Session adjourned.

WEDNESDAY P.M., APRIL 17TH, 1895.

The Department resumed at 2.55.

The minutes of the previous Session were read and confirmed. The election of officers then took place. The following were elected, all by acclamation :---

President	
DirectorJ. A. Hill, Ph.D., of Toronto. DirectorJ. H. Putman, of Ottawa. Executive CommitteeL. Rees, of Toronto : F. J. Weidenhammer	
of Berlin ; Miss Hendrie, of Hamilton. AuditorsL. J. Clark, of Toronto, and H. Ward, of Guelph.	,

The President expressed his regret that Mr. Stewart would not be able to be with us and give his paper, on account of the serious illness

The resolu ing,---

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PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

The resolutions of the Waterloo Teachers' Association recommend-

the Examiners,

ing,-1. That the Model and Normal School terms be extended to a year.

2. That candidates for the Model School hold at least a Junior Leaving Certificate.

3. That the amount given by the township to each school section be \$200 and \$100 for each assistant.

4. That the age of candidates for admission to the profession be no less than twenty-one, were introduced by Mr. Linton and Mr. Fraser, of Berlin, and, after full discussion on the last clause, were almost unanimously adopted.

On motion, the resolution from the Toronto Teachers' Association, opposing the granting of Professional Certificates to teach in Public Schools to graduates of the School of Pedagogy who have not had a Normal School training, was carried unanimously.

On motion of MR. MCALLISTER, of Toronto, seconded by MR. W. L. MACKENZIE, of Toronto, it was decided to refer the resolution of the Durham Teachers' Association and the proposed departmental changes in the regulations to a Committee to report thereon, Committee to be named by the President.

The President appointed Mrs. Gahan, of London, and Messrs. McAllister and McMillan, of Toronto, Mr. E. T. Young, of Guelph, and Mr. R. McQueen, of Kirkwall, as the Committee.

On motion of Mr. MCALLISTER, of Toronto, seconded by MR. FRASER, of Waterloo, a vote of thanks was tendered the Committee who reported on the Wentworth resolutions.

The Session adjourned.

THURSDAY A.M., APRIL 18TH, 1895.

The Department resumed business at 9.35.

The minutes of last meeting were read, corrected and confirmed.

On motion of MR. W. E. GROVES, seconded by MR. WEIDENHAMMER, of Waterloo, a Committee consisting of the mover and seconder and Messrs. Rodgers, of Toronto, E. T. Young. of Guelph, and S. Y. Taylor, of Paris, was appointed to consider the question of Drawing, and see if no better system could be devised than that now authorized, and report their decision at the afternoon session to-day.

MR. E. T. YOUNG, of Guelph, presented the report of the Committee to consider the proposed changes in the Regulations.

After being discussed clause by clause, on motion of MR. JAMES

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GRANT of Guelph, seconded by Mr. C. F. FRASER, of Berlin, the report amended as follows was adopted :

1. Section 16, sub-sec. 4: Amend to read, "In no case shall the Principal of a High School be also the Principal of a Public School."

2. We approve of the proposed plan:

(a) Of making the Primary Course extend over two years.

(b) Of adding to that course the subjects Botany and Physics.

(c) Of allowing no option therein.

3. (a) That a Second Class Professional Certificate should represent at least one year's professional training more than that of a Primary Teacher's Certificate.

4. (b) That the standard should be $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. on each subject and 50 per cent. on the whole.

The Hon. MR. Ross, who was present, addressed the Department, complimenting it on the increased attendance and on the improvement in the discussions.

The following resolutions of the West Lambton Teachers' Association was then taken up:

(a) That it is desirable to have a Public School Leaving Examination.

(b) That the course shall extend two years after the Entrance.

(c) That the Regulations admitting pupils holding Public School Leaving Certificates to the Second Form of High Schools be repealed, and classification of such be left to High School Master.

(d) That the course for the Public School Leaving Examination shall be especially adopted to pupils who do not intend to enter the

(e) That pupils shall pass the Entrance before taking such course, or be recommended by their Inspector.

On motion clause (a) was adopted unanimously.

On motion clauses (b), (c) and (d), with the resolutions of Mr. Eddy, Mr. Strachan, and the East Leeds Institute and other resolutions of which notice of motion had been given, were referred to a Committee, consisting of Messrs. M. P. McMaster, of East Toronto; A. Manning, of Hamilton; J. Rodgers, of Toronto; E. T. Young, of Guelph; J. Strachan, of Rockwood, and James Grant, of Guelph; with instructions to report at the afternoon Session.

On motion of MR. E. T. YOUNG, of Guelph, seconded by MR. M. P. MCMASTER, of East Toronto, the Executive were given discretionary power for the expenditure, when the funds of the section would permit, of a sum not exceeding ten dollars.

The Session adjourned.

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PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

THURSDAY P.M., APRIL 18TH, 1895.

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nded by MR. given discreof the section The Department resumed business at 2.15.

The Committee appointed to examine the Drawing Book Course and, if possible, suggest an improvement, reported they had not time to give the subject proper attention.

On motion of MR. WEIDENHAMMER, of Waterloo, seconded by MR. E. T. YOUNG, of Guelph, it was decided to lay the matter over until next Session.

On motion of MR. D. YOUNG, seconded by MR. GORDON, Messrs. Mc-Allister, of Toronto; Linton, of Berlin; Manning, of Hamilton; Parkinson, of Toronto; McMillan, of Toronto, and McQueen, of London, were appointed a Committee to lay before the Minister the resolutions of the Department—the Committee to make a minute of the interview and forward to the Secretary for insertion in the printed minutes.

MR. J. H. PUTNAM, of Ottawa, read a paper on "The Country School." On motion of MR. HARLTON, of Toronto, seconded by MR. REES, of Toronto, a vote of thanks was tendered Mr. Putnam, and it was resolved that his paper be printed in the Proceedings.

MR. E. T. YOUNG, of Guelph, then read a paper on "Conservatism in the Teaching Profession," in which he argued that through conservatism and unfit influence the Public School curriculum has too many subjects, that some subjects have too wide a range, that there are signs of portending changes in the Public School system, that this section would fill its true office if the Honorable the Minister of Education would always submit proposed changes to the Association, and be duly influenced by those sections most affected.

On motion of MR. YOUNG, of Guelph, seconded by MR. G. R. BROWN, of Madoc, it was decided that the Public School Section of the Ontario Educational Association desire to thank the Honorable the Minister of Education for submitting to the Association his proposed regulations, and that the Minister be memorialized to the effect that in the opinion of said Public School section it would be of inestimable value to the educational interests of our Province if all contemplated changes in the educational system were to be presented to the Association as has been done this year.

On motion of MISS COYNE, of London, seconded by MRS. GAHAN, of London, a vote of thanks was tendered Mr. E. T. Young for his excellent paper.

MR. HUSBAND, of Oakville, wished to withdraw his paper, as the proposed changes covered most of the ground he had taken up.

MR. GARVIN, of Peterborough, agreed to give his paper at some future time.

MR. STRACHAN presented the following report of the Committee appointed to consider the resolutions of Mr. Eddy and Mr. Strachan, of the East Leeds and of the West Lambton Teachers' Associations, and others of which notice of 'motion had been given by Mr. Grant, Mr. Rodgers and Mr. Manning :--

(a) With reference to Mr. Eddy's motion, we approve of his resolution, and recommend that for the purpose of uniform examination a Board of Examiners be formed in each inspectorate, consisting of the Inspector and three Public School teachers for each High School—the head master to regulate the valuing of the answer papers at both the Entrance and Public School Leaving Examinations.

(b) That in reference to Mr. Rodger's motion, in the opinion of this department, the Entrance Examination is not now a suitable standard for admission to High Schools; that the said examination be dispensed with as soon as practicable, and that the standard be more nearly in line with the Public School Leaving Examination.

(c) That in reference to the resolutions of the West Lambton Teachers' Institute :---

(1) Clause (c) be amended by adding the words "so long as the present Entrance Examination exists."

(2) Clauses (b), (d) and (e) be struck out.

(d) That (in reference to Mr. Strachan's motion), the work for Public School Leaving be such as can be thoroughly done in one year after the Entrance Examination.

(e) In reference to Mr. Manning's motion, that

(1) Algebra be struck off the Public School Leaving Examination.

(2) The Arithmetic limit be shortened by cutting off all percentage questions involving the element of time, with the exception of simple interest, compound interest and discount.

(3) The limit of Poetical Literature be cut down one-half and that some short, simple and inexpensive prose work of one of our standard writers be substituted, in order to afford material for the proper teaching of English Composition.

(f) That we approve of the action of the Minister of Education in extending the grant to all pupils who pass the Public School Leaving Examination.

(g) That we favor the adoption of the fourth resolution of Mr. Strachan.

That in the matter of Legislative grants, the Public Schools should

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be more liberally dealt with, and that the proportion of eight or nine dollars to one dollar per pupil in favor of High School is too great.

(h) In regard to the motion of Mr. Grant, we strongly recommend that more care be taken in the preparation of Public School Leaving Papers.

After being discussed clause by clause, it was decided that clause (e) be omitted.

On motion of MR. RODGERS, of Toronto, seconded by MR. BROWN, of Madoc, the report, as amended, was adopted.

On motion of MR. JAMES GRANT, of Guelph, seconded by MR. JOHN STRACHAN, of Rockwood, it was decided that in the opinion of this Department the time has arrived for a thorough revision of our Public School Course.

On motion of MR. HARLTON, of Toronto, seconded by MR. ROGERS, of Toronto, a vote of thanks was tendered the retiring officers of the Department.

The President made a short reply. The meeting closed with the singing of God Save the Queen.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE APPOINTED TO PRESENT THE RESOLUTIONS OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT TO THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION.

By appointment, we waited on the Minister at 10.30 a.m., Saturday, April 20.

1. With regard to resolutions re Entrance Examination :

(a) The Minister approved of the recommendations in Arithmetic, but insisted on a test being given in accuracy and rapidity.

(b) The Minister did not approve of the recommendation of using rulers in Drawing.

(c) The Minister approved of the recommendation in Grammar, Writing, Geography and Literature.

2. With regard to resolution re Proposed Department Regulations:

(a) The Minister did not concur in the recommendation regarding section 16, sub-section 4, but approved in general terms of the others.

3. The Minister did not concur in our recommendation regarding the Board of Examiners for High School Entrance Examinations.

4. The Minister was favorably impressed with and will consider our recommendations regarding Public School Leaving.

5. The Minister expressed himself as favorable to the increased Township grant to School sections, but implied that the Legislature would not agree to it.

6. The Minister regarded the raising of the age limit to twenty-one as impracticable at present.

7. The Minister refused to discuss the recommendation regarding professional training and the School of Pedagogy.

The Committee regret that some of the resolutions, which were laid before the Minister were not received with that consideration which was due to them as coming from such an important body as the Public School Department.

(Signed)

S. MCALLISTER. A. MCMILLAN. WM. LINTON. ALEX. MCQUEEN. M. PARKINSON.

MINUTES OF KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 16TH, 1895.

Meeting opened at 9.30 with a large attendance. President, MISS MARY MACINTYRE, in the chair. After singing the Teachers' Hymn, minutes of last meeting were read and approved, and roll of officers called, all responding.

The President then gave her inaugural address, based upon the meeting held last summer which Miss Blow and a number of leading Kindergarteners attended. It was unanimously decided to have Miss Macintyre's paper printed.

The members then adjourned to the Model School Department to hear Dr. Tracy upon "Child Study," returning at eleven to hear Miss Bolton, of Ottawa, give an address upon "Morning Talks in Kindergarten," dealing with sympathetic development of songs by means of home experiences.

The reports of Committees were then read :

1. Report of Committee with regard to Kindergarten training and standard for admission.

Upon consultation with the Minister of Education, we think the standard for admission to the Kindergarten training class should be a Primary certificate.

2. Report of Committee in regard to some arrangement being made by which the record of the year's work may be taken into account in case of the failure of a capable student in her written examination. That a blan that they may and that the shall be taken 3. Report

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3. Report of the Committee in regard to the revision of the syllabus.

That a new syllabus shall be prepared and be in the hands of the Directors in time for the work of next year.

It was resolved, that our meeting open at 10 a.m. on Wednesday, the members meeting in the Training Room to hear a paper on "Definite Methods of Child-study," by S. B. Sinclair, B.A., of Ottawa.

The meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH, 1895.

After hearing Mr. Sinclair's paper, the members met in Kindergarten Room to hear an address by the Minister of Education, Hon. G. W. Ross.

Mr. Ross reviewed the history of Kindergarten work in Ontario, saying it had been well started and was being successfully carried on. He referred to the higher educational standard that is to be exacted in future. A broad culture being required, it is necessary to have a Primary certificate or its equivalent before entering into training for Kindergarten certificate.

Dr. Ross was followed by Dr. Adams, of Lennoxville, who gave a brief address.

Director Miss Macintyre, Toronto.

Secretary Miss Florence Bowditch, Hamilton.

MISS JEAN LAIDLAW, of London, then gave a paper on "What the Child Says and Does."

The meeting then adjourned.

THURSDAY, APRIL 18TH, 1895.

MRS. S. S. NEWCOMB, of Fredonia, N.Y., President of Dominion Kindergarten Association, occupied the chair and opened the meeting with an address, which was followed by an address from A. E. WINSHIP, M.A., upon Kindergarten Methods.

MRS. ADA M. HUGHES then gave a history of the Kindergarten movement in Ontario.

A question drawer was opened, and free discussion followed upon many subjects of interest.

MISS MACINTYRE read a paper on Transition Class-work by Miss O'Grady, of Montreal.

The meeting adjourned at 12.30.

MINUTES OF THE TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 16TH, 1895.

The Training Department of the Ontario Educational Association met at 10 a.m. in Principal Kirkland's Room, Normal School.

Mr. A. Barber in the chair.

The Committee on Public School Studies not being in a position to report, it was moved by MR. HOUSTON, seconded by MR. RANNIE, that an extension of time be granted them wherein to draft their report. Carried.

It was moved by MR. SUDDABY, seconded by MR. KIRKLAND, that the Chairman and Secretary be a Committee to confer with the Inspectors' Department in reference to union meetings for the purpose of listening to papers of common interest. Carried.

No information being forthcoming as to the resolution of the Training Department of last year, referring to adjustment of Public and High School studies, it was moved by MR. MCDIARMID and seconded by MR. BOWERMAN, that a Committee consisting of Messrs. Rannie, Scott and the Secretary, be appointed to confer with Committees from the Public School and High School Departments in the matter and to report as early as possible. Carried.

It was moved by MR. RANNIE, seconded by MR. SMITH, that we invite the Inspectors' Department to meet with the members of the Training Department, this afternoon, for the purpose of hearing Dr. J. B. Hall's paper on "Concentric Instruction." Carried.

DR. TRACY, of the University of Toronto, addressed the meeting on the subject of "Child Study," dealing more especially with it in its relation to Pedagogy.

It was moved by MR. SINCLAIR and seconded by MR. RANNIE, that this Department request of Dr. Tracy the privilege of printing his paper in the proceedings of the General Association. Carried.

Moved by MR. SMITH and seconded by DR. MCCABE, that the discussion of Dr. Tracy's paper be postponed till Wednesday, when it may

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TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

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hat the discuswhen it may be taken up in connection with that of Mr. Sinclair's paper on the same subject. Carried.

DR. McLELLAN then read a paper on "Educational Psychology," or more definitely, "The Psychology of Subjects," in which he maintained that every subject has its psychological place. The paper, in conclusion, gave an excellent treatment of the psychology of number.

The meeting adjourned at 12.30.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH, 1895.

The Department met in Normal School at 9.30 a.m., Mr. A. Barber, presiding.

On explanation of MR. POWELL, Chairman of Committee appointed last year to report on the recommendations contained in Inspector Garvin's paper, that such report should be presented to a joint meeting of the Training and Inspectors' Departments, it was moved by MR. McDIAR-MID and seconded by MR. SMITH, that the above Committee's report be the third order of business on Thursday. Carried.

MR. Scorr, of the Normal School, then read a carefully prepared paper on "Deportment," showing its bearing upon the moulding of character in the teacher and pupils, and in the formation of a healthy sentiment in the community.

Moved by MR. WILKINSON, seconded by MR. BROWN, that steps be taken to have the paper incorporated in the proceedings of the General Association. Carried.

Moved by MR. CAMPBELL, seconded by MR. SMITH, that with the permission of Mr. Scott the school journals be given the privilege of printing in full his paper. Carried.

MR. SINCLAIR, of the Ottawa Normal School, then read a paper on Definite Methods in Child Study."

As a result of the recommendations contained in this paper, it was moved by MR. CAMPBELL and seconded by MR. BROWN, that a Committee consisting of Messrs. Kirkland, Scott, Sinclair, Elliott and Suddaby, be appointed to consider the advisability of forming a circle for child study. Carried.

On motion of MR. WILSON, seconded by MR. LOUGH, the meeting was adjourned at 11.25 a.m.

THURSDAY, APRIL 18TH, 1895.

The Training Department of the O. E. A. met at 9.15 a.m. in Principal Kirkland's room, Normal School, Mr. A. Barber in the chair. The minutes of the ansai

The minutes of the previous meeting were read and confirmed.

The following officers were then nominated and elected for the ensuing year :---

																McCabe, Ottawa.
																H. Elliott, Hamilton.
Director	•	•	•		 	•	•	•		•	•				Mr	. Brown, Whitby.

The report of the Committee appointed in 1893 to inquire into the educational values of subjects, was read by Mr. Houston, but owing to a misunderstanding on the part of the Chairman who drafted the report, as to the instructions given his Committee, this report did not deal with the department of the subject, for the consideration of which the Committee was specially constituted.

More specific instructions were then given the Committee by Principal Kirkland, after which it was moved by MR. WILSON and seconded by MR. REID, that the matter be remitted to the Committee to be reported on at the next Annual Convention. Carried.

It was moved by MR. KIRKLAND and seconded by MR. ELLIOTT, that in view of the Model School term being extended to one year, a Committee consisting of three members be appointed to consider what subjects should be taught and what text-books should be used, this report to be presented at the next Annual Convention. Carried.

It was moved by MR. REID and seconded by MR. WILSON, that the above Committee consist of the following :---Messrs. Elliott, Campbell and Powell. Carried.

MR. POWELL, Chairman of the Committee appointed to consider the recommendations contained in Inspector Garvin's paper on Qualifications of Model School Principals, presented the following report :---

"The Committee on Qualifications of Model School Principals, beg leave to recommend as follows :—

"1st. That the non-professional standing be a First Class Grade A Certificate or its equivalent.

"2nd. That the professional standing include at least five years' experience in Public School work on a higher grade of professional certificate than a Third Class, and that three of the said five years experience be on a First Class Professional Certificate.

"3rd. That certificates as Principals of Model Schools be issued to all at present in charge of Model Schools who have the experience mentioned in clause 2, and to others only where the conditions mentioned in clauses 1 and 2 have been satisfied.

"F. C. POWELL, Chairman."

Moved by MR. POWELL and seconded by MR. SUDDABY, that the report be received. Carried.

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, Chairman." DABY, that the Moved by MR. CAMPBELL, seconded by MR. BROWN, that clause 2 be amended by inserting the word "two" instead of the word "three." Carried.

Moved by MR. REID, seconded by MR. BROWN, that clause 3 be amended to read as follows :---

"That permanent certificates as Model School Principals be granted to all persons who have had three years' successful experience as Model School Principals, and to those now engaged as Model School Principals when they shall have completed three years' successful experience; and to others when conditions in clauses 1 and 2 have been satisfied." Carried.

Moved by MR. RANNIE, seconded by MR. McDIARMID, that the report as amended be adopted. Carried.

Moved by MR. MCDIARMID and seconded by MR. WILSON, that a Committee consisting of Messrs. Powell, McDiarmid and Barber, be appointed to lay before the Honorable the Minister of Education the report as amended. Carried.

Chairman BARBER suggested that a specialist course in Psychology and the Science of Education should be prepared by the Department of Education suitable for Model School Masters.

It was moved by MR. KIRKLAND and seconded by MR. SUDDABY, that a Committee to be named by the Chairman, be appointed to consider such a course and report at the next meeting. Carried.

The Chairman appointed the following as a Committee:--Messrs. Kirkland, Suddaby and Barber.

The following report of the Committee on Child Study, was read by MR. KIRKLAND:---

"The Committee appointed yesterday to consider the best means of directing the attention of the teachers of Ontario to the important subject of Child Study, beg to report :—

"(1) Your Committee recommends that a Section of the Training Department be now formed, having for officers a Chairman and Secretary, and that Dr. Tracy be Chairman and Miss McIntyre be Secretary.

"(2) That a Committee be now appointed with the object of carrying on some line of investigation during the year; that said Committee consist of Dr. Tracy, Chairman; Miss McIntyre, Secretary; Professor Hume; Mr. Scott, Vice-Principal Normal School; Dr. McCabe, Principal Normal School, Ottawa; Dr. McLellan, Principal School of Pedagogy; Mr. Kirkland, Principal Normal School, Toronto; Mr. Sinclair, Vice-Principal, Normal School, Ottawa; Inspector Hughes, Mrs. Hughes, Miss

Bolton, Inspector Carson, Mr. Stevenson, Mr. Houston, Mr. W. H. Elliott, Mr. Suddaby, and any others who wish to co-operate with the foregoing in the object for which the Committee is appointed."

It was moved by MR. KIRKLAND and seconded by MR. SINCLAIR, that the report be received and adopted. Carried.

MR. Scorr then asked the following question: "Will members of this new Section other than members of the Department of Training enjoy the privileges of membership in the aforesaid Department?" On this the Chairman ruled:—"They are not members of the Department of Training, and therefore have none of the privileges of this Department.

MR. RANNIE, Chairman of Committee on Public and High School Studies, reported progress.

Moved by MR. BROWN, seconded by MR. SCOTT, that the report be received, and that the Committee be instructed to continue their labors and report at next meeting. Carried.

Moved by MR. SCOTT, seconded by MR. RANNIE, and resolved, that the Executive Committee of the Ontario Educational Association be urged to fix a limit to the time occupied by the speakers at the meetings of this Association, except in the case of distinguished men invited by the Committee. Carried.

A paper on "School Exhibitions," prepared by M. E. Archambault, Principal of the Boys' High School, Montreal, was handed to the Chairman, but as the time for adjournment had already passed, it was moved by MR. ELLIOTT and seconded by MR. BROWN, that a Committee consisting of Messrs. Kirkland and Scott be appointed to read the paper and report to the Secretary as to the advisability of its being printed in the proceedings of the General Association. Carried.

On motion of MR. RANNIE, seconded by MR. KIRKLAND, a vote of thanks was tendered to the retiring officers.

The meeting adjourned at 12.15.

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MINUTES OF THE MODEL SCHOOL SECTION OF THE TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH, 1895.

This Section met at 11 a.m. Wednesday, in Mr. Murray's room.

The Chairman, MR. H. F. MCDERMID, occupied the Chair ; attendance about forty.

The Chairman called upon Mr. J. J. Tilley, Inspector of Model Schools, who addressed the Section upon the advisability of establishing a Reading Circle for the Model School Principals.

Moved by MR. JORDAN, Meaford, seconded by MR. BROWN, Madoc, that such Reading Circle be established, and that the following Committee be appointed to select the books :—Inspector Tilley, Mr. Barber, Cobourg ; Mr. Elliott, Hamilton ; Mr. Wilson, N. Toronto ; Mr. Rennie, Newmarket ; Mr. Suddaby, Berlin. Carried.

Moved by MR. BARBER, seconded by MR. WILSON, that this Section adjourn to meet this afternoon at the close of address of the Minister of Education. Carried.

This Section re-assembled at 3 p.m.

MR. McDERMID in the Chair. The Section then proceeded to elect officers for the ensuing year.

Moved by MR. CAMPBELL, St. Thomas; seconded by MR. RENNIE, that Mr. Wilkinson, Brantford, be Chairman. Carried.

Moved by MR. REID, seconded by MR. WILSON, that Mr. J. C. Linklater, Gananoque, be Secretary. Carried.

Moved by MR. CAMPBELL, seconded by MR. JORDAN, that the Section adjourn until 2 o'clock to-morrow. Carried.

THURSDAY, APRIL 18TH, 1895.

Business was resumed at 2.15, MR. H. F. MCDERMID in the Chair.

Moved by MR. RENNIE, seconded by MR. WILSON, that Mr. J. C. Linklater act as Secretary. Carried.

MR. TILLEY introduced MR. HAYES, representative of the Appleton Co., who addressed the teachers on the price of books, and stated that for the number of books required he would deliver them in Toronto, all charges prepaid, at 20 per cent. below retail price.

Moved by MR. SUDDABY, seconded by MR. RENNIE, that the Committee appointed by the Training Department to interview the Minister of Education with the object of laying before him the qualifica-

tions deemed necessary for the mastership of a County Model School, be requested to press upon the Minister the desirability of giving teachers holding certificates as Model School Masters the right of being County Inspectors.

MR. RENNIE reported for the Committee appointed to select books for the Reading Circle, and for supplementary reading by students, that the following works be used in the course of reading for the Reading Circle, viz.: Felix Addler's Moral Instruction, Painter's History of Education, Baldwin's Psychology Applied to Education, and White's School Management; and for students, Preyer's Infant Mind.

Moved by MR. SMITH, seconded by MR. WILSON, that the report of the Committee be received and adopted. Carried.

Moved by MR. BROWN, and seconded by MR. SMITH, that the Committee on selection of books be requested to prepare a circular for transmission to Model School Masters, asking what books they require, and on receipt of answers to the same, to place the order to the best advantage. Carried.

The Section then adjourned.

MINUTES OF THE INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 16TH, 1895.

The Inspectors organized in the Library at 10 a.m.

G. D. Platt, B.A., Chairman ; N. Gordon, Secretary.

At the request of the Chairman, Inspector Brebner opened the meeting with prayer.

After the opening remarks of the Chairman, on motion of INSPECTORS CARLYLE and CHAPMAN, it was resolved that the President make arrangements to have Dr. Hall's paper read in a union meeting composed of the training section and this section. Carried.

A communication was read from the Women's Christian Temperance Union regarding the teaching of Temperance in the Public Schools.

After much discussion, it was moved by INSPECTOR DEACON, seconded by INSPECTOR MCNAUGHTON, that the Secretary acknowledge the receipt of the communication from the W. C. T. U. stating our sympathy therewith, and that we are doing and will do all that we can to further the teaching of Physiology and Temperance in accordance with the Programme for Public Schools. Carried.

The subject "Auditing School Accounts," was then taken up by MR.

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BREBNER, in the absence of DR. KELLY, who favored the auditing of these accounts by the School Inspector yearly. In the meantime Dr. Kelly arrived, and, after some remarks, left the subject for discussion to the meeting, which was carried on at some length by Messrs. Tilley, Brown, H. D. Johnston, Mackintosh, Summerby, Michell and Carlyle, all of whom expressed dissatisfaction with the present system.

INSPECTOR MACKINTOSH moved and INSPECTOR BROWN seconded a resolution, which was carried, that a Committee composed of Messrs. Tilley, Summerby and the mover, be appointed to take up "Blank School Forms."

On motion of MESSRS. SUMMERBY and MITCHELL, it was resolved that the following Committee be appointed to take up the matter of auditing school accounts and to report to-morrow, viz.: Messrs. Brebner, Brown and Deacon.

Meeting then adjourned till 2 p.m.

The afternoon session was taken up in the Training Department for about two hours listening to Dr. Hall's paper and in its discussion, after which the Section took up business in its own room.

"Uniformity in Registering and Reporting School Attendance," was taken up by MR. Moses in a short and spirited address, after which Mr. Fotheringham took up the subject more fully, showing how the register should be kept, etc. The matter was fully discussed by Messrs. Dr. Tilley, Grant, Mackintosh, H. D. Johnston, Brown, Brebner, Dearness, Knight, Fotheringham, Summerby and Moses.

Then MR. MACKINTOSH introduced the subject of General Registers, which he considered indispensable for the proper classification of the school at the time teachers are changed to prevent such irregularities as the pupils promoting themselves, etc.

MR. FOTHERINGHAM contended that the Daily Register was sufficient. Mr. Moses was in favor of the promotion books, while Dr. Tilley supported the General Register. Mr. Scarlett agreed with Mr. Moses. Mr. Platt found it difficult to get the General Register properly kept. He also favored a Promotion Book, while Mr. Brebner found teachers not infallible, yet did their duty generally well. Mr. Brown had been disgusted in his attempts to have the General Register kept as it should be.

MR. DEARNESS emphatically denied that he was the originator of the General Register, and moved that two columns be added to the Inspector's Report, seconded by DR. TILLEY, which was carried, as to the neatness and accuracy the teacher displayed in keeping the Register.

On motion the meeting adjourned till 9 a.m. Wednesday morning.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH, 1895.

At 9 a.m. minutes of previous sessions read and approved.

After opening exercises MR. TILLEY made a partial report of the Committee *re* Annual Reports which was referred back after a general discussion.

The Committee was then increased on motion of Messrs. Tilley and Brown by adding the names of Messrs. Dearness and Carlyle.

It was resolved on motion of MESSRS. KNIGHT and MACKINTOSH that five minutes be given the publishers for the exhibition of an historical map. This map, after exhibition, was spoken highly of by nearly all the members present.

It was moved by MR. CAMPBELL, seconded by MR. MACKINTOSH and carried unanimously that the fees of this section be 75 cents, viz., 50 cents for general association and 25 cents to defray the expenses of this particular department of the Ontario Educational Association.

INSPECTOR EMBURY read an excellent paper on "The Model School Course and Text Books." 'The paper was fully discussed by Messrs. Dearness, Knight, Michell, Grant, Garvin, Mackintosh and Fotheringham.

On motion of Messrs. TILLEY and KNIGHT it was carried that a committee consisting of Messrs. Michell, Grant, Campbell, Deacon and Embury, be appointed to consider the last paper and report thereon at the present meeting before publication.

"How to Retain our Experienced Teachers," was introduced by MR. MACKINTOSH in which he pointed out a number of ways by which this desirable object might be attained, such as basing the apportionment of the school grants on the qualification of the teacher, or at least a portion on such a basis and by a different mode of conducting the professional examination of teachers, etc.

Meeting adjourned till 1.45 p.m. to the Public Hall to hear the Hon. G. W. Ross' explanation of proposed changes in Regulations, in regard to course of study in High Schools.

At the afternoon session Inspector Mackintosh's paper was taken up for discussion after some remarks by Inspector Tilley in regard to the appointment of Examiners for the Entrance Examinations, as well as from Messrs. Brown, Campbell, and H. D. Johnston, as to the method of selection. A resolution was moved by Mr. Brown and carried, that a Committee consisting of Messrs. Barnes, Mackintosh and Kelly, be appointed to consider the matter and report thereon.

The report of the Committee on Auditing School Accounts was pre-

sented by MR. Brown, Macki On motion of of auditing be required to fu to filling up th A resolutio adopted.

MR. DEARNI Visits." This highly comme Scarlett, H. D. expressing the

MR. GARVIN Grades," which pupils. Paper

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INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT.

sented by MR. DEACON. A discussion followed, in which Messrs. Deacon, Brown, Mackintosh, Alex. Campbell and Dr. Kelly took part.

On motion of MR. DEACON, it was resolved that the present method of auditing be retained, with the understanding that the Trustees be required to furnish an itemized statement to the Inspector in addition to filling up the usual printed form. Carried.

A resolution was then carried that the report, as amended, be adopted.

MR. DEARNESS introduced "Teaching Model Lessons at Inspectoral Visits." This subject was fully discussed, and Mr. Dearness' plan highly commended by Messrs. N. W. Campbell, Carlyle, Mackintosh, Scarlett, H. D. Johnston, Brown, McOuat, A. Campbell and Grant, all expressing their approval of the plan adopted.

MR. GARVIN took up his paper, "Some Original Methods for Primary Grades," which was well illustrated by examples of work done by his pupils. Paper to be discussed in the morning. Meeting adjourned.

THURSDAY, APRIL 18TH, 1895.

At 9 a.m. the minutes of previous sessions were read and approved, with slight alterations.

INSPECTOR GARVIN presented a verbal report of a Committee appointed in 1894 *re* Qualifications of Model School Masters.

INSPECTOR MACKINTOSH read the report of the Committee on his paper "How to Retain our Experienced Teachers," which was adopted, with slight amendments, on motion of Messrs. Grant and H. D. Johnston.

Officers elected for 1896 :

PresidentJ. W. SUMMERBY. SecretaryWm. A. CHAPMAN. DirectorDr. TILLEY.

Mr. Garvin's paper on "Original Methods" was then finished and highly commended by the Inspectors present.

MR. CRINGAN read his paper on "Music," which was well received. A motion was carried appointing a Committee composed of Messrs. Garvin, Dearness, Cringan and Workman, to arrange a course of music to be presented to this section at its next meeting.

On motion of MR. SUMMERBY, seconded by MR. H. D. JOHNSTON, a hearty vote of thanks was tendered to Mr. Cringan for his excellent address.

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Moved by INSPECTOR MACKINTOSH, seconded by INSPECTOR BREBNER. That the Executive Committee arrange for at least two meetings in common with the Public School Teachers', Training and School Trustees' Sections of this Association in 1896. Carried.

MR. DEACON gave an excellent paper on "Programmes for Ungraded Schools," which was not fully discussed when meeting adjourned.

At 2 p.m. Mr. Deacon's paper was fully discussed by Messrs. Brown, Knight, N. W. Campbell, Dearness, Summerby and Mackintosh, all of whom spoke in the highest terms of the able manner in which the paper was handled.

On motion of Messrs. BROWN and KNIGHT, Mr. Deacon was requested to furnish a synopsis of his paper for publication, and to embody any suggestions which met with his approbation thrown out during the discussion. Carried.

MR. N. W. CAMPBELL now read his paper on the "Revision of the Public School Programme," which was discussed by Messrs. Carlyle, Dearness, Cringan, Smith, Fotheringham, Mackintosh and Michell.

On motion of Messrs. MICHELL and BREBNER, a Committee composed of Messrs. Fotheringham, Campbell and Dearness was authorized to take into consideration a revision of the course of study.

MR. TILLEY presented a report of the Committee on Blank Forms, Inspectors and Trustees' Reports, which, after a few alterations, was adopted, and he was appointed to lay the matter before the Education Department.

A vote of thanks having been passed to the President for his efficient services, the meeting adjourned.

We respectfully make the following recommendations, viz.:

1. That the Public School Legislative Grant be materially increased. 2. (a) That the Municipal Grant be apportioned as now, on the basis of average attendance. (b) That the Legislative Grant be apportioned on a two-fold basis, as follows: That a small fixed grant of \$5or \$10 be given for each teacher employed (for at least nine months of the year) who has a first or second class professional certificate. That the remainder of the grant apportioned to the municipality (township) be apportioned on the basis of the rate of taxation necessary to defray the ordinary expenditure of the previous year.

3. That the examinations in Practical Teaching in the Model and Normal Schools be given a higher relative value and made more exacting. That candidates at the Final Examinations of the Model and Normal S maximum assi on the basis o well as parsin

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6. That the on the Boards ing Examinati or higher wor Class Public S

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Visitor—The Ontario.

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TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

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fodel and ade more he Model and Normal Schools be required to make not only half of the total maximum assigned to practical teaching, but half of each of the totals on the basis of which the teaching staff and the examiners mark, as well as parsing in the written examination.

4. That no person should hereafter be permitted to act as Principal of a Model School who does not hold a First Class A or Specialist's Professional Certificate, before receiving which he should have had five years' successful teaching in a Public School, that while in the possession of a First Class Professional Certificate. This recommendation is not intended to apply to those who already hold Model School Principal's Certificate.

5. That Third Class Certificates should be limited to the counties in which granted or for which they have been endorsed.

6. That the representatives of the Public School Boards of Trustees on the Boards of Examiners for the Entrance and Public School Leaving Examinations should be actually engaged in teaching Fourth Class or higher work in Public Schools and be the holders of First or Second Class Public School Teachers' Professional Certificates.

(Signed)

W. MACKINTOSH. M. KELLY, M.A. C. A. BARNES, B.A.

MINUTES OF THE TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 167H, 1895.

Visitor-The Hon. G. W. Ross, LL.D., etc., Minister of Education, Ontario.

DELEGATES.

Public School Boards—Aurora, J. R. Rutherford, M.D.; Barrie, John Rogerson; Bowmanville, John Lyle; Elmira, A. Warner; Galt, Rev. A. Jackson, M.A., Ph.D.; Grimsby, R. A. Alexander; Kingston, Geo. Y. Chown, B.A., and A. Shaw; Ottawa, John I. MacCraken, B.A.; Paris, A. H. Baird; Picton, H. Welbanks; Port Hope, James Evans; St. Catharines, Walter McGibbon; Shelburne, Alexander Smith; Tilson, burg, Dr. Louis C. Sinclair; Woodstock, George J. Fraser.

High School and Collegiate Institute Boards—Arthur, John Anderson; Aurora, J. R. Rutherford, M.D.; Barrie, His Honor (Judge) J. A. Ardagh, B.A.; Bowmanville, Col. F. Cubitt; Collingwood, John Hogg; Dunnville, John Parry, J.P., and S. W. Brown, L.D.S.; Grimsby, Rev.

James Goodwin; Kingston, A. Shaw; Meaford, Frederick Abbott and E. Y. Godfrey; Orangeville, Charles M. Smith, M.D., and Rev. G. G. McRobbie, Sc.D., etc.; Paris, John Allen; Picton, H. Welbanks; Toronto, Thomas A. Hastings; Weston, James Cruickshank, J.P.; Woodstock, George J. Fraser.

Boards of Education—Arnprior, T. W. Kenny, J.P.; Hamilton, S. F. Lazier, LL.B., etc., David Dexter, and W. J. Grant; Lindsay, Col. James Deacon; Newburgh, George Anson Aylesworth; Oshawa, L. K. Murton, B.A.; Owen Sound, Rev. John Somerville, D.D., and R. McKnight; Pembroke, James H. Burritt, B.A.; Whitby, John Ball Dow, B.A., J. E. Farewell, LL.B., etc., Charles F. McGillivray, M.B.

Associate Member-J. Frith Jeffers, M.A., Toronto.

The Ninth Annual Convention of the Public and High School Trustees of Ontario began in the Examiners' Room, Education Department, at 2.30 o'clock p.m.

After the registration of Delegates, the President, MR. JOHN BALL Dow, B.A., Whitby, began the proceedings of the Session by taking the chair and calling upon the Rev. Dr. Jackson, Galt, to begin the Convention with prayer.

The minutes of the proceedings of this Department in Convention in March, 1894, as printed in pamphlets and distributed throughout the Province, were taken as read, and upon motion were confirmed.

MR. JOHN MILLAR, B.A., Deputy Minister of Education, Ontario, was invited to a seat beside the President.

MR. H. BONIS, Principal of Vienna High School, asked the privilege of addressing the Convention with regard to certain "Recommendations of the Vienna Board of Education regarding Maintenance of County High Schools." After Mr. Bonis had addressed the meeting at some length further consideration of the matter was deferred till this Department should take up Topic 7 of the programme, "The Approaching Revision of the School Laws."

The Secretary reported orally the action of the Executive Committee and of the Legislative Committee since the Annual Convention of 1894.

The Treasurer read a statement of the finances of this Department.

Messrs. MACCRAKEN, of Ottawa, and Allan, of Paris, were appointed Auditors, to report at the Wednesday Morning Session.

REV. DR. MCROBBIE and MR. MACCRAKEN were appointed a Committee to prepare for the press reports of the proceedings of this Department.

The Convention went into Committee of the Whole to consider the first topic on the programme.

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TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

The President called to the chair the REV. DR. JACKSON, of Galt.

MR. JOHN BALL Dow, B.A., briefly recalled the attention of the Convention to a paper prepared by him and printed in the Proceedings of this Trustees' Department for the year 1893. At the close of his remarks the following resolution was submitted :--

Moved by MR. Dow, seconded by MR. AYLESWORTH, That this Department respectfully recommends to the Honorable the Minister of Education—

(a) That the statutory meaning of the term "Maintenance" (High Schools Act, 1891), be enlarged so as to include the following matters, namely:—

1. Some reasonable contribution towards the original cost of the school buildings and permanent equipment.

2. Fire insurance premiums.

3. Cost of all Departmental Examinations held in High Schools; and (b) That the district or municipality in which the High School is situated should be exempted from contributing towards the county grants to High Schools.

The Convention discussed the resolution thoroughly, the following delegates taking part in the debate: Mr. Anderson, Col. Cubitt, Messrs. McKnight, Burritt, Allan, Murton, Godfrey, Cruickshank, Rutherford, Farewell, Brown, Rev. Dr. McRobbie, Judge Ardagh, Mr. MacCraken, and the mover and seconder.

During the discussion the Honorable the Minister of Education entered the room, and was invited to a chair at the table. Before the resolution was voted upon the Hon. Dr. Ross was asked to state his views. In compliance he expressed the gravest doubt whether the Legislature would look with favor upon the making of "Maintenance" to include even a small rate of interest upon the original cost of High School buildings and equipment. He thought it would be quite useless to ask it.

As to fire insurance premiums, he thought they might fairly be included under the words, "and sundry expenses for ordinary school purposes," in the clause of the High Schools Act interpreting "maintenance."

He was of the opinion that the Departmental Examinations mostly pay their own way.

He said that the principle of the Act of 1891 was that after deducting the Legislative grant the whole cost of educating county pupils should be borne by the county, and the whole cost of educating the pupils from the locality of the school should be borne by the local

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municipality. The contention that as the law now stands the local municipality not only bears the whole cost of educating its own pupils, but also helps pay the county grant through its annual contribution to the county rate, appeared to be fair, and to merit due consideration when at the next session of the Legislature the High Schools Act would undergo revision.

After the attention of the Department had been called to the details of the unsatisfactory working of certain clauses of the High Schools Act in some localities, Mr. Dow's motion was put to vote, and carried.

It was moved by MR. Dow, seconded by REV. DR. MCROBBIE, and resolved unanimously, that the provisions of the present school law with regard to High School fees are satisfactory.

MR. Dow proceeded to discuss the desirability of greater uniformity in the valuation of answers of High School Entrance candidates; also some amending changes in the composition of the Board of Examiners.

On motion the Committee rose and reported progress.

The Convention resumed, the President in the chair. The two resolutions passed in Committee were received and adopted.

On motion of MR. L. K. MURTON, B.A., Oshawa, seconded by REV. DR. JACKSON, the hour of meeting for Wednesday morning was fixed at 9 o'clock, the election of officers to follow immediately after the disposal of the remainder of the first topic on the programme.

It was also resolved that topic 2 of the programme be taken up for discussion the first thing in the afternoon session of Wednesday, and that topic 3 follow immediately after the election of officers.

The session then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17th, 1895.

The Trustees' Department re-assembled at 9.30 a.m., the President in the chair.

The minutes of the previous session were read and confirmed.

MR. A. SHAW, Kingston, was appointed to assist in recording minutes and preparing press reports.

The Convention went into Committee of the Whole to consider further the first topic on the programme, Rev. Dr. Jackson in the chair.

It was moved by MR. Dow, seconded by MR. H. WELBANKS, Picton, that for the purpose of examining and valuing the answers of the candidates for High School Entrance Examinations, at some place within each county there should be a Central or County Board of Examiners, to be composed of (1) The Inspector or Inspectors of Public Schools within the bouqualifications a School Master High School 1 such Board o entrance candi the candidate

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TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

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nsider furhe chair. KS, Picton, ers of the lace within Examiners, lic Schools within the bounds of the county; and (2) two members possessing the qualifications at present required (one of whom at least shall be a High School Master actually engaged in teaching), to be appointed by each High School Board or Board of Education in the county; and that such Board of Examiners should finally determine the fitness of entrance candidates within such county, subject only to an appeal by the candidate as at present.

After being debated by Messrs. Brown, Fraser, Chown, Burritt, Shaw, Anderson, McKnight, Lazier, Murton, Godfrey, Col. Deacon, Rev. Dr. Somerville, Rev. Dr. McRobbie, and the mover and seconder, the motion was voted upon and carried.

The Committee rose and reported.

The Convention resumed, PRESIDENT Dow in the chair.

On motion the report of the Committee of the Whole was adopted. The auditors reported as follows :

"We hereby certify that we have examined the accounts and vouchers of the Secretary-Treasurer of this Department, and that we have found the same correct.

"Balance in the Treasury (besides the fees for 1895), sixteen dollars. (Signed), JOHN ALLAN, JOHN I. MACCRAKEN, Auditors."

TORONTO, 16th April, 1895."

Moved by MR. MACCRAKEN, seconded by MR. ALLAN, that this Convention adopt the Auditors' Report, and that thirty dollars be paid to the Secretary-Treasurer as a fee for services rendered to this Department. Carried.

The Secretary-Treasurer thanked the Department for its appreciation. The following officers were elected for 1895-6 :—

President-Rev. Alexander Jackson, M.A., Ph.D., Galt.

First Vice-President-James H. Burritt, B.A., etc., Pembroke.

Second Vice-President-S. W. Brown, L.D.S., Dunnville.

Secretary-Treasurer—Geo. Anson Aylesworth, Newburgh, Addington County.

The Executive Committee consists of the above-named officers, together with *Ex-Presidents* J. E. Farewell, LL.B., Q.C., Whitby (1887-8); His Honor (Judge) A. Bell, Chatham (1889); Rev. J. Somerville, D.D., Owen Sound (1890); John I. MacCraken, B.A., Ottawa (1891); Rev. G. G. McRobbie, Sc.D., Shelburne (1892); S. F. Lazier, LL.B., Q.C., Hamilton (1893-4); John Ball Dow, B.A., Whitby (1895), and Messrs. A. Werner, Elmira; D. Dexter, Hamilton; J. Anderson,

Arthur; A. Shaw, Kingston; Col. Cubitt, Bowmanville, and Col. Deacon, Lindsay.

Moved by REV. DR. JACKSON, seconded by MR. E. Y. GODFREY, Meaford, that when this Department finally adjourns for this year, it adjourn to meet on Wednesday, the second day of the next annual meeting of the Ontario Educational Association, at 9.30 o'clock in the forenoon; and that in the programme of announcements of said next annual meeting of the Ontario Educational Association the said hour of meeting of this Department be indicated. Carried.

A paper was then read by Mr. J. Burritt on "The Fifth Form in Public Schools."

Moved by MR. GEO. J. FRASER, seconded by REV. DR. JACKSON, that the paper just read by Mr. Burritt be published in the Minutes of Proceedings, and that this Department memorialize the Minister of Education to carry out as soon as practicable the reforms advocated in Mr. Burritt's paper.

Rev. DR. JACKSON spoke in favor of the resolution, COL. CUBITT and DR. BROWN briefly discussed the question, and MR. FRASER had risen in support of his motion, when the hour for adjournment having come, the Convention rose.

WEDNESDAY, 17TH APRIL, 1895.

The Convention resumed at 2.45 o'clock p.m., the President in the chair.

MR. FRASER continued the debate on the "Fifth Form in Public Schools." MR. L. K. MURTON, B.A., Oshawa, and REV. DR. SOMERVILLE followed. It was pointed out that the statistics adduced by MR. BUR-RITT and REV. DR. JACKSON were misleading, because they based their calculation of the relative cost of educating a pupil in the English subjects of the Fifth Form in Public Schools, and in the Primary Class in High Schools, upon the whole attendance at Public Schools, whereas it was well known that by far the greater portion of Public School children dropped out of school before they reached even the Fourth Form.

The debate was continued by Messrs. Werner, McKnight, Shaw, Godfrey, Allan, Alexander, Aylesworth, and Cols. Cubitt and Deacon.

Early in the course of the discussion the Hon. Dr. Ross, Minister of Education, etc., visited the Department and was invited to a chair by the President. At the close of the debate, by request, he addressed the Convention. He said that several of the delegates seemed to have an impression that there were some optional powers now lodged in School Boards as to whether there should be a Fifth Form in the schools under their care. If since this Pr there existed free education there were not in that school Public School compulsory, a

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Minister of a chair by ddressed the to have an d in School chools under their care. He wished to set that right by pointing out that never since this Province had adopted the Free Public School System had there existed any such option. Every Ontario child was entitled to a free education, including the Fifth Form. Of course, if in any school there were no pupils fit for the Fifth Form, there could be no Fifth Form in that school while that condition of things continued. But in every Public School where there are pupils for the Fifth Form, that Form is compulsory, and has been compulsory for very many years.

It was well known that languages were easier learned early in life; and languages being part of the curriculum of the Primary Class in High Schools along with the same English subjects as are included in the Fifth Form in Public Schools—and for some other reasons, he thought that in many instances the Fifth Form work could be done better in High Schools than in Public Schools, always providing that the High Schools exempted their Primary pupils from fees. The pupil was entitled to receive his Fifth Form education free.

A delegate asked, "What is a School Board to do if the County Council insists on exacting High School fees from the County Primary pupils?"

HON. DR. Ross-Abolish the County Council.

The Minister of Education, resuming, expressed the hope that within a few years the Department would be able to slough off the High School Entrance Examination altogether. He was quite alive to the fact that many children at too tender an age now succeed in passing into the High School.

After MR. BURKITT had expressed his satisfaction at the views expressed by the Honorable the Minister of Education, especially with regard to the abolition of the Entrance Examination; and after MR. FRASER, as mover of the resolution, had briefly closed the debate, the motion was put to vote and carried by a majority of two.

Topic 2.—" The effect upon the High School Curriculum of the action of the University Senate in dividing the Matriculation Examination."

REV. DR. MCROBBIE asked the Convention to dispense with the reading of the paper he had prepared upon this subject, as the whole matter had been already sufficiently dealt with in the address delivered immediately previous to this session, by the Honorable the Minister of Education before the general Association, in explanation of the new Proposed Departmental Regulations.

The President, MR. Dow, having asked to be excused, on motion of

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Messers. MCKNIGHT and SHAW, Mr. Jas. H. Burritt, First Vice-President, presided during the remainder of the Convention.

Topic 4.—Notice of motion.

Moved by COL. DEACON, seconded by COL. CUBITT, that the Honorable Minister of Education be respectfully requested to consider the expediency and justice of making a larger distribution of the public money to the Public Schools. Carried.

On motion of MR. AYLESWORTH, seconded by DR. BROWN, Mr. Jno. Ball Dow, B.A., was elected by this Trustees' Department to the Board of Directors of the Ontario Educational Association.

Topic 5.—" The new powers of Municipal Councils to borrow money and pay it in monthly instalments to School Boards."

Topic 6.—" Departmental Examiners' greater latitude in passing candidates."

The Convention having considered these two topics sufficiently, on motion of COLS. CUBITT and DEACON adjourned to meet again at 9.30 o'clock a.m., Thursday, 18th April.

THURSDAY, 18TH APRIL, 1895.

The Convention re-opened at 10 o'clock a.m., MR. JAS. H. BURRITT presiding.

Topic 7.—" The approaching revision of the School Laws ":---

A deputation from the Commercial Association presented the following:----

"Resolved, That besides the Commercial Course provided for in the proposed Form I. of the new regulations, the Minister of Education be asked to institute a Commercial Form II. to include the following subjects:----

Obligatory.—Book-keeping and Penmanship, Correspondence, Business Forms and Usages, Phonography, Reading, English Composition and Spelling, Arithmetic and Mensuration, Algebra.

Optional.—Poetical Literature.

Drawing.—The rest of the Primary Art School Course.

And that examination papers be set, valued and read by the Education Department, which shall also grant diplomas thereon. And that it be recommended in the Regulations that the subjects of Book-keeping and Phonography should each be taught at least one hour per day."

MR. J. A. WISMER, M.A., President of the Commercial Association, and MR. ROBT. H. ELDON, of Harbord street Collegiate Institute, Toronto, were heard in support of the above resolution. It was mov W. BROWN, L students of ou First Form, a important tha mercial work. Therefore,

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Association, te Institute, It was moved by REV. J. SOMERVILLE, D.D., and seconded by MR. S. W. BROWN, L.D.S., That inasmuch as a considerable percentage of the students of our High Schools drop out of the course at the end of the First Form, and go back to farm work, or take up trades, it is very important that there should be as full a course as possible in commercial work.

Therefore, this Department of High and Public School Trustees resolve that the commercial course should be made complete in the First Form of our High Schools. Carried.

Moved by MR. A. SHAW, seconded by REV. DR. MCROBBIE, That as many Trustee Boards are considering practical mechanics of greater value than gymnastics, we would recommend that the Department of Education do not make it compulsory to have gymnasiums erected in connection with the High Schools or Collegiate Institutes of the Province. Carried.

On motion, the Convention adjourned to meet again in the Examiners' Room, Education Departmental Buildings, Toronto, at 9.30 o'clock in the forenoon of Wednesday, 8th April, 1896.

Notice is hereby given that at the next regular meeting of the Ontario Educational Association, motion will be made so to amend the Constitution that to elect the President, Secretary, Treasurer and Auditors shall be the duty of the Board of Directors.

GEO. ANSON, AYLESWORTH,

NEWBURGH, 13th May, 1895.

Sec'y Trustees' Dep., O. E. A.

MINUTES OF THE COMMERCIAL ASSOCIATION.

The Commercial Teachers of the Province organized themselves on Tuesday morning into, "The Commercial Association of the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes of Ontario." The Association was afterward admitted to the College and High School Department as one of its recognized sections. The following officers were duly elected: President, J. A. Wismer, M.A.; Vice-President, Miss C. McCutcheon; Secretary-Treasurer, R. H. Eldon; Councillors, Miss M. Aiken, W. H. Fletcher, G. W. Johnson, W. J. Dobbie, W. E. Evans and W. Grant.

The large attendance and the enthusiasm of the assembled teachers augured well for the success of the newly-organized association. The work of the sessions is embodied in the following resolutions:

1. Resolved, that besides the Commercial Course in the proposed Form I., the Minister of Education be asked to institute a Commercial Form II., to include the following subjects : Obligatory—Book-keeping and Penmanship, Correspondence, Business Forms and Usages, Phonography, Arithmetic and Mensuration, Reading, English Composition and Spelling, and Algebra; Optional—English Poetical Literature and Drawing—the rest of the Primary Art School Course.

And that the Education Department should set the examination papers of this course, value and read the answers, and grant a diploma thereon.

And that the Regulations should recommend that, in this form, the subjects of Book-keeping and Phonography should be taught at least one hour each per day.

2. Resolved, that all students should be required to take the full Commercial Course of Form I.

3. Resolved, that the Book-keeping sets and the Drawing books should be presented at the Commercial Examination as heretofore, and that the work done in these books count for a certain percentage (say 10%) of the total examination.

4. Resolved, that the Departmental Examinations in Drawing and the Commercial Course should be held at the same time as the other Form Examinations.

5. Resolved, that one lesson per week in Writing, throughout the whole year, is better than three lessons per week during the First Term.

6. Whereas legiate Institu Examinations 1894 and 18 resolved that should contin the Education

7. Resolved ing Examinar candidates with desirous of with to pay a fee of 8. Resolved

Examination appointed from and Collegiate

COMMERCIAL ASSOCIATION.

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6. Whereas, the Commercial Course in our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes steadily deteriorated from the time that Departmental Examinations ceased, until again instituted in 1894, and that during 1894 and 1895 it has shown marked improvement, therefore, be it resolved that the examination papers in Book-keeping and Drawing should continue to be set, and the answers to be valued and read by the Education Department.

7. Resolved, that candidates writing on the Commercial and Drawing Examinations alone, should pay a fee of one dollar; and that candidates who succeed in passing the said examinations and are desirous of writing on the other subjects of the Primary, be required to pay a fee of four dollars only.

8. Resolved, that in future, Examiners for the Primary Departmental Examination in the Commercial Course and Drawing, should be appointed from among the Commercial teachers of our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT

OF

MINUTES.

THE ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1894-95.

Receipts :		
Balance from last Statement	\$316	50
Members' Fees	192	
Ontario Government Annual Grant	300	~ ~
Sale of Proceedings	108	
Advertisements in Proceedings	17	00
Interest to December 31st	7	56
	\$941	07
Expenditures -	φ σ π	01
Publishing Proceedings (1,400 copies)	\$269	82
Printing-Circulars, Programmes, and Reprints		10
Postage, Mailing, Stationery, etc		45
Expenses of Convention, Chairs and Attendance		25
Expenses of Dr. G. Stanley Hall		25
Expenses Board of Directors, Railway Fare to November Meeting		90
Secretaries of Departments	30	00
General Secretary	75	-
Treasurer	10	00
· Balance	310	30
	\$941	07
R. W. DOAN, Secretary, W. J. HENDRY, Trea	surer	
Toronto, April 17th, 1 5.		1

We, the undersigned Aulitors appointed by the Ontario Educational Association, beg leave to report that we have examined the books of the Treasurer and compared the items of expenditure with the vouchers presented and find the same correct, leaving a balance on hand of \$310.30.

> CHAS. A. BARNES, S. B. SINCLAIR, Auditors. ANGUS McINTOSH,

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MR. PRESIDI that I rise to r tender a few v on this occasio evening will n expected, and not pretend to homely charac and afterwards the beauties an In responding

ADDRESSES AND PAPERS.

ONTARIO ASSOCIATION AND DOMINION ASSOCIATION.

ADDRESSES DELIVERED AT THE OPENING OF THE CONVENTION.

THE HON. DR. Ross, Chairman, in opening the Convention spoke as follows:--

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN :—This meeting is intended to be a reception to the teachers of Canada. You will have an address of welcome on behalf of Toronto from His Worship the Mayor; on behalf of the ' Educational Association of Ontario there will be an address from the President of the Teachers' Association; on behalf of higher education an address from the President of the University. These will be addresses of welcome. In response there will be an address from the President of the Dominion Association; an address from the Minister of Education for British Columbia, who is with us; I hope, also, a response from the Minister of Education for Manitoba, who has not yet arrived; but you will have a response from Mr. Parmelee, who represents Quebec, and from Dr. McKay, who represents Nova Scotia; and one other Province may yet come into line. I have great pleasure in asking His Worship the Mayor to tender his reception address on behalf of the corporation of the City of Toronto.

HIS WORSHIP MAYOR KENNEDY said :---

MR. PRESIDENT, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:—It is with great pleasure that I rise to respond to the call of the President when he asks me to tender a few words of welcome to the distinguished audience before me on this occasion; and I feel greatly relieved from the fact that this evening will not be a speech-making evening. Great speeches are not expected, and indeed it is very fortunate for me, for such a thing I do not pretend to be able to do; but my welcome will be of a kindly, homely character, and then the response will be made on the same line, and afterwards we shall feel free and easy to move around and inspect the beauties and attractions of this magnificent educational institution. In responding to your call I feel a measure of justifiable trepidation,

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called as I am, being a humble layman, to address the literati of the Dominion of Canada. The great educationalists of our Dominion are here before me, or at least a large number of them; and you can easily understand how embarrassing my position is in being called upon to address such an audience; but I am asked to do so as the Mayor of Toronto, and I shall discharge that duty as well as I possibly can. I feel that the Honorable the Minister of Education has conferred a great honor upon our city in asking me to discharge this pleasant duty. The Mayor of the city is called upon to discharge duties and to hear honors that sometimes he desires to shrink from; but the position demands that he shall respond where duty calls. Now, sir, we are looking forward to a very rich treat during the next three days, and I am sure the citizens of Toronto will appreciate it. The advantages that will accrue to our city from your visit are various and great. In the first instance there are social advantages. We shall meet distinguished educationalists and shake their hands and be glad to know them personally, and not simply read about those distinguished men in the educational work of our Dominion. Then the social advantages will be also to the homes where you will reside for a short time. These homes will be benefited by your conversation and example. Then, again, we shall have intellectually great advantages. We shall profit by your intercourse and shall hear papers read by learned gentlemen on important subjects which will profit us intellectually, and give us larger and more elevated views of our duty in this matter, and the claims that life has upon us. Then we, as a city, will profit financially by the visit of our friends who are here.

I trust that I shall not be considered too sordid if I simply touch upon this aspect of the subject with the tip of my little finger but we know that Toronto has derived great advantages from the various conventions and assemblies that have come here from time to time. Last summer almost my entire time was taken up in delivering addresses of welcome to various associations of an educational character; and these brought a large amount of money into the city. Well now, it is quite right and justifiable for me to refer to this. When the Baptist convention came here last summer—a body of five or six thousand magnificent men and women consecrated to the service of God—and scattered themselves through the city hotels and private houses, some one suggested to me that those people brought not less than \$100,000 into our city, and that therefore it was good and proper that I should give them an address of welcome under these circumstances at all events. Now, sir, I took

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occasion, in my inaugural address, to make a little enquiry regarding the amount that our institutions of higher education expended in our city, and I think that I arrived at figures that are fairly correct when I state that our universities and colleges annually expend among us about \$400,000. Well, this is an advantage that flows to us from having these institutions of higher education among us. One of the most distinctive features of the Province of Ontario is its system of public institutions to which special attention has been given from a very early date. As far back as 1797 lands were set apart for educational purposes, and their now exists in this Province a thoroughly efficient system of Public Schools, High Schools, Collegiate Institutes, University College and the University of Toronto-a most perfect and thoroughly equipped system of education. Sir, we know the part you have contributed since you became Minister of Education; but it may not be out of place for me here to refer to the gentleman who preceded you, the General Superintendent of Education who has gone to his rest -the late Rev. Dr. Egerton Ryerson. He established among us a system of education to which there is nothing superior on this planet. It has been continued down to us, and it has been improved by your experience and that of others, so that now in this Province we have one of the finest systems of education extant to-day. Dr. Ryerson visited the principal cities of the American Union and Europe, and went to those countries where he could obtain knowledge upon this question, and brought with him the cream of the various systems of education upon the continent of Europe and crystallized these and made them suit the wants and requirements of this Province, and to-day we are reaping the fruits of his labors and of his giant intellect. You, sir, as Minister of Education, are carrying on this grand work which was commenced by that great and good man. There stands upon the grounds here a monument in bronze erected to his memory; but, sirs, he has erected a monument that will last forever in the hearts of the people of this country, so that when monuments of brass and granite and marble shall be crumbled under the consuming hand of time his name will live through the ages. The important work in which you are engaged cannot be over-estimated, namely, the education of the youth of our land. This gives power and stability to the commonwealth. Wisdom and knowledge shall be the stability of our times and the strength of salvation. We know that it is a very dangerous thing for people to have power without knowledge. At the close of the late American war when the slaves were liberated, the first thing the government of the country did was to take steps for the education of

the freedmen. They saw there was tremendous power there, and unless that power were controlled and directed and educated and guided, it might become a tremendous engine for injury to the commonwealth, so they took immediate steps to teach the slave his duty to the commonwealth and to himself so that he might become a useful citizen. The universal franchise calls for the education of the people. If put into the hands of an uneducated people the injury that might befall us cannot be measured. We are proud to welcome you to this fair and beautiful city. We think we can indulge a justifiable pride when we speak of the city of Toronto, which is physically handsome, intellectually progressive, and stands well morally on the whole notwithstanding little blotches that may be on the page of our history —so that the civic motto, "Industry, Intelligence, Integrity," is fairly and honestly earned.

To those of you who are strangers, let me say that you never entered a city either in the United States or England, Ireland or Scotland, or anywhere else, where you will be made more heartily welcome than in the city of Toronto. Her hospitality has become a by-word. I have received letters again and again from leading persons in connection with the various deputations and conventions that visited our city last summer, thanking us for our kindness and expressing their pleasure at the hospitality they received here. The city has made great progress in the last hundred years. When Governor Simcoe selected this site it was a very poor spot; the alien roamed at large; fever and ague held high festival in the very place where Torontostands. One of the most healthy cities on the continent, having her palatial residences and her commercial palaces and her institutions of learning. These are all on the very spot where the Indian had his camping ground; it was unattractive in every respect. Governor Sincoe selected this spot as his capital in preference to Niagara on account of the latter's proximity to the American border, for he could not afford to have his capital under the guns of a power that might some day turn upon him; so he left Niagara and coming around the shores of the lake selected Toronto. It was wisely selected. No more beautiful place could he have chosen. When it was incorporated in 1834, the population was 9,000, and the assessed value of the property \$400,000; to-day we number about 188,000, and the assessed value is questioned by some. Some here might say, "Now, Mr. Mayor, be careful about your figures, because we are watching you." However, the last assessed value was \$149,000,000, and possibly it may be a little less on the next assessment. But we can afford to let

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S. F. LAZIEF Association, sai

MR. PRESIDE it is with gre after the eloqu Toronto. Toron His Worship wa be proud of-its matters to which Toronto, in a cer as President of come up from di an Educational viz.: the Colleg Department, the ment, the Traini Trustees' Depart tions or divisions ciation takes in a to the University committee electe the departments. I am not really a fession, the law,

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some few millions go and still have a large property. Our Public Schools in the city are in excellent condition; we have 30,000 school children, 50 schools, 170 churches, and 315 miles of streets; so that if our streets were continued in one line they would reach almost to the city of Montreal. This city of ours is a great commercial distributing centre, our railways lay the whole surrounding country under tribute to us. This city is the seat of learning, the Athens of Ontario. We are glad to find with us gentlemen from the eastern part of the Dominion and from the far west, from Nova Scotia and British Columbia, this marvellous of ours which is called the Dominion of Canada. A lady once said that she would rather live in Canada than in the United States, "because," she said, "the United States is not named in the Scripture, but she found the Dominion of Canada named in Scripture, for," said she, "does not the Scripture say that 'He shall have Dominion from sea to sea and from the rivers to the ends of the earth.' "

S. F. LAZIER, M.A., LL.B., President of the Ontario Educational Association, said :---

MR. PRESIDENT, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN :--- I can assure you that it is with great diffidence that I rise to address you, especially after the eloquent address from the Mayor of this grand city of Toronto. Toronto, no doubt, is the greatest city in Ontario-I thought His Worship was going to say in the Dominion. It is a city we may be proud of-its educational institutions, its population, and all of those matters to which he referred. While the Mayor represents the city of Toronto, in a certain sense I represent the whole Province of Ontario as President of the Ontario Educational Association, whose members come up from different parts of this great Province of ours. We have an Educational Association composed of very many departments; viz.: the College and High School Department, the Public School Department, the Kindergarten Department, the Inspector's Department, the Training School Department and High and Public School Trustees' Department. Besides these, there are many sections, associations or divisions of these departments. Thus you will see our Association takes in every department of education from the Kindergarten to the University. This Association is presided over by an executive committee elected partly from the general association and partly from the departments. In a certain sense I feel out of place this evening, as I am not really an educationalist. I belong to that much abused profession, the law, which, however, has the name of being a learned

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profession, as I am sure it is. I belong to the Public and High School Trustees' Department, which about three years ago affiliated with the Ontario Teachers' Association, and the whole thereby became the Ontario Educational Association. In a sense the Trustees' Department may be said to represent the parents of the children being educated, those who must supply the funds to keep the great machinery of our educational system in motion. We think that in our Association we have some of the best part of the educational talent in the Province. You will find amongst us college professors, high and public school teachers, inspectors, training teachers, and kindergarteners, in the teaching staff; and amongst our public and high school trustees you will find doctors of divinity and other clergymen, judges, Queen's counsellors and other lawyers, merchants, accountants, and almost every other class in the community represented. We are all engaged in doing what we can to build up one great harmonious educational system. Indeed, we sometimes think that we are a sort of a fifth wheel to our educational coach. We have taken it upon ourselves in some one branch or other of our Association from time to to time give advice to the Honorable the Minister of Education. We point out some improvements which we think he ought to make in the system, and I must say that the Honorable Minister has always received us very courteously, and in some instances he has carried out our suggestions. In others he has taken them under No doubt in course of time he will also consideration. be able to see eye to eye with us in all these matters. Our Association opens its portals to the ladies as well as the gentlemen, and its highest offices are open to all classes. On behalf of this Association, I desire to tender a welcome to the city of Toronto to our visitors from all parts of this Province, and especially to the representatives from the other Provinces of the Dominion. I understand the gentleman from Manitoba is not able to be present. I think, perhaps, he is discussing educational matters elsewhere. He has come to give light to some of the inhabitants of this country, viz., to the electors of Haldimand county. It will be a good thing, in fact I think it would be a very great thing in this country if we had but one educational system in which we could all see alike in this matter and choose the very best. I am sure it would be a great thing, not only for this country, but for the whole Dominion. In conclusion, I can only again extend a hearty welcome on behalf of our Association to all whom I have mentioned, and to say that we are glad to see you here to-night, and hope you will enjoy yourselves, and that on some future occasion we may see you again.

DR. LOUDO follows :—

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DR. LOUDON, President of the University of Toronto, spoke as follows :---

After the words of welcome, which have been uttered so appropriately by His Worship the Mayor and by the President of the Ontario Educational Association, I almost feel that there is little left for me to add. But I should not be doing myself justice if I did not say at least how highly I esteem, personally, the honor of being asked to assist in extending a welcome to this the most representative audience of the educational forces of our country which has ever been assembled in We have here not only our own Ontario Educational Canada. Association in full force, but also for the first time we are privileged to have with us the Dominion Educational Association; so that we represent the great cause of education in all its departments, from Cape Breton in the East to Vancouver Island in the West, and had we met a year or two later, perhaps, we should have included Newfoundland as well. The occasion is certainly an auspicious one, and augurs well for educational progress in Canada.

I feel, however, that I am here to bid you welcome to-night rather in my official capacity as President of the Provincial University, than otherwise. Speaking then for the University, I wish to state clearly how highly I appreciate the union of educational forces of which this meeting is the strongest sort of evidence. Time wasand not so long ago-when the University was regarded as something apart from the Public and High School system, separated from them by a great chasm, and having ends and objects but distantly related to theirs. I am glad to say that here, as elsewhere, this belief is now being relegated to the class of exploded educational theories. The educational system of a country is being more and more regarded as an organic whole of which no part can be injured without the suffering of the whole organism. It is like a tree, if you will allow the comparison, with roots, stem and branches, bearing fruit to the profit of the nation. To my mind it is immaterial whether you call the Public School system the root, or whether you consider the University as such. But this is certain, if you make a cross section between the root and the stem, you are tolerably certain to kill your tree; if you lop off the branches you are sure to mutilate it. True, there are some people who are much concerned just now to determine which of root, stem or branches is the most important-in other words, whether Public School, High School, or University, is most worthy to be fostered. Such an inquiry arises, I apprehend, from an imperfect understanding of the various relations and functions of this organic whole. To drop

my metaphor, I hold most firmly that these three parts of the system are mutually interdependent in the strictest and most practical sense. It is as plain as that two and two make four that if the work of the Public Schools is bad, the standard of the High Schools must inevitably be lowered. If the High Schools are inefficient, the University must suffer. On the other hand, if the University fails to maintain and advance higher learning, is there not an immediate deterioration in the teachers whom the High Schools educate to take charge of the Public Schools? As I have said, all this is now better understood among those who think out the real problems of education.

A sign of the times I find also in the reorganization of the Ontario Educational Association so recently effected. The old Ontario Teachers' Association did a good work, but it did not include the Universities, it did not include the High School Trustees, nor the Inspectors. The defects in the arrangement finally became obvious to all, and three years ago the Ontario Educational Association replaced the older body, and now combines in itself every part of the system, so arranged that both individual and general interests are adequately fostered. Such a reorganization not only indicates a change in public opinion, but it marks, I fully believe, a distinct step in advance. For this belief I could give reasons, if necessary, but I feel that this would be superfluous, as I apprehend that you are all at one with me in this respect.

But there is another side to this matter which I might call the sentimental side. There is in it the recognition of the fact that our work is in common, the great, the sublime work of shaping and directing the human soul and intellect. There is less and less disposition, I hope, on the part of teachers to assert the superiority of the special work which they happen to be engaged in. May such supercilious pedantry tend more and more to disappear, and let us recognize the fact, and act upon it, that honest effort in the kindergarten is just as honorable and may be in its effects as far reaching and useful as the highest intellectual efforts of the University professor. And with this thought I shall close, in order not to turn my few words of welcome into a prolonged discourse. Allow me then to extend the heartiest welcome to you all as fellow-teachers and co-workers in this grand cause, and to express the wish that your labors on this occasion may be fruitful in the highest degree.

HON. DR. Ross, as President of the Dominion Educational Association, then spoke as follows :---

MR. MAYOR Dominion Edu very grateful just tendered ciate the kind distant parts of this beautiful of those 315 m its schools, and under the kin inflated assess way contribute cial enterprises cally rich, but theless apprecia has placed the We shall view its citizens and and we shall n the few days w of the Presiden ciation that re one-third of th the teachers of will always rec of Ontario. W the President of institution of le nion, I think, teacher in our ra teaches in the schools that may the advantages themselves, but general terms to Association has i scriptural, for it Its primary obj ago—was to nat the common brot any country can

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MR. MAYOR, MB. LAZIER, AND DR. LOUDON :- On behalf of the Dominion Educational Association as its President, I accept with very grateful feelings the kindly words of welcome which you have just tendered to the Association at its second meeting. We appreciate the kindness of the Mayor, coming as we do, many of us, from distant parts of the Dominion, in offering to us the hospitality of this beautiful city of Toronto. We may not walk the entire length of those 315 miles of sidewalk, we may not visit all its churches or all its schools, and we may not stay long enough in the city to come under the kindly scrutiny of the assessor, nor add to the already inflated assessment of this wonderful city, nor may we in any way contribute abnormally to the income of the various commercial enterprises of the city while we stay. Teachers are characteristically rich, but they are characteristically economical, and we nevertheless appreciate the generous manner in which the Mayor of Toronto has placed the whole city, with all which it contains, at our disposal. We shall view its beauties and enjoy them. We shall meet with its citizens and appreciate their beauty and talent and hospitality, and we shall make the most, I trust, of our opportunities during the few days we remain. We appreciate particularly the kind words of the President of the Ontario Educational Association-an Association that represents about 8,800 teachers, a little more than one-third of the teachers of the whole Dominion. We know that the teachers of any Province, no matter how near or how remote, will always receive kindly sympathy of the teachers of the Province of Ontario. We also appreciate the welcome so well expressed by the President of the University, which is given to us by this great institution of learning. I can speak for the teachers of the Dominion, I think, when I say that all of them, even the humblest teacher in our ranks, no matter what his standing may be, whether he teaches in the historical red school house, or in one of the stately schools that may be found in some of our larger cities, appreciate all the advantages which higher learning has bestowed, not only upon themselves, but upon their pupils. This response is all I need say in general terms to the welcome which has been given us. The Dominion Association has its own purposes. It is not local, it is national. It is scriptural, for it extends from sea to sea and from shore to shore. Its primary object-and it was only established two or three years ago-was to nationalize the teaching forces of Canada, to establish the common brotherhood of this, one of the greatest professions which any country can organize or countenance or direct. Its primary object

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is to establish between the teachers of Canada that bond of sympathy which will enable each of them to feel, while engaged in his own Province, or in his own peculiar work, that he is teaching the people of his own Province or of his own school to be citizens, not of the Province, but to be citizens of Canada in the broadest sense of the term. So far as I am concerned, I want every boy who goes to the Public Schools of Ontario to feel that he has a direct interest in the mines of Cariboo and Kootenay, whether he gets any gold from them or not; to know that Canada is greater than Ontario, great as Ontario may be; to know something of the history of the Provinces lying to the East, where the great battles of constitutional government were fought in the early days of Canada; to know something of the length and breadth and the immensity of the undeveloped resources of this country so far as these may be known; that he may not be parochial in his ideas of this land, but that he may grow up with a breadth of view and with an appreciation of the possibilities of this country which would make him realize the greatness of his birth-right and the advantages which he occupies in being called a Canadian. Our object is to infuse this spirit into every teacher of Canada, so that the teacher may communicate that spirit to his pupils and in this way nationalize and consolidate the great forces of this Dominion. Necessarily we are Provinces for purpose of government. For purposes of teaching and development we should be but one Dominion ; and it is the purpose of this Teachers' Association to make us feel that we are but one Dominion. Our second object is to devise methods for making the schools of Canada a more potent factor in the development of national life. Do we appreciate what our schools are? They are 17,054 in number; they are manned by 23,822 teachers. Can we take in in one moment the intellectual force, the psychical force, which 23,822 teachers represent? They are attended by 999,274 pupils-an army of nearly a million of children every morning going to our schools and every evening returning to their homes. I am now speaking of primary and secondary schools. We have besides 4,919 pupils in our classical colleges and 4,734 students in our fourteen universities. This Dominion Association represents public schools and secondary schools with nearly a million pupils, our classical schools and our universities with nearly 10,000 additional. The work in which these 23,000 teachers are engaged, and the impressions which they seek to form on the minds of these learners that attend their classes, are the impressions which I have indicated, namely, to make the school a more potent force in the development of a higher national life. What are our methods of procedure? We

discuss how b We lay it dow makes the sch sional standing methods where office may be i in the schools the teacher to thus unite, as i this country fo In the next pla claim—for the their work, the to hold. My] Ontario Associ learned profess ion of Canada peculiar duty nation. The humblest kinde as a professor say. There is a every one of u the burgomaste the Lord Mayo kindergartener i pupils from day president of a u There are no jea work where the well up to a cer do it there, and operate a little department bein the work in whi whole nation. formation of the " Let me make th laws." Let me scarcely need la they will so influ

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discuss how best to improve the intellectual culture of the teacher. We lay it down as the corner-stone of successful work that the teacher makes the school. We study methods whereby the teachers' professional standing can be improved and his training enhanced. We study methods whereby the permanency of the tenure by which he holds office may be increased; and we study methods whereby his influence in the schools may be enlarged. In all these ways we seek through the teacher to influence those millions that attend our schools, and thus unite, as it were, in one solid phalanx all the educational forces of this country for the purpose of a higher development of national life. In the next place we claim-and the object of the Association is to claim-for the teachers of Canada the professional standing which their work, their culture, and their personal qualifications entitle them to hold. My honorable friend from Hamilton, the President of the Ontario Association, spoke of himself as a member of cne of the learned professions. I want to claim for every teacher in the Dominion of Canada a similar standing. Why do I say so? It is the peculiar duty of the teacher to give intellectual life to the whole The President of the University rightly said that the nation. humblest kindergartener may do as important work for the country as a professor in a University. That is precisely what we teachers say. There is no aristocracy in this profession; we are all noblemen, every one of us. The village schoolmaster is a burgomaster, and the burgomaster of the village, and he need not take off his hat to the Lord Mayor, for he is his equal in point of rank. The humblest kindergartener is the greatest force that comes in contact with these pupils from day to day, and she need not take second place with the president of a university. This is a profession that has no gradations. There are no jealousies in our ranks. The University takes up the work where the High School leaves it. The High School has done it well up to a certain stage-done it better than the University could do it there, and we hand our finished material for the University to operate a little further, and so on through all the grades, each department being facile princeps within its own sphere. This is the work in which we are engaged; we give intellectual life to the whole nation. Then we also believe that we do very much for the formation of the character of the whole nation. The old saying was, "Let me make the songs of a people, and I care not who makes their laws." Let me make the schoolmasters of a country, and you will scarcely need laws for them hereafter. They will so hypnotize, they will so influence the young and plastic character of those in

attendance at the schools, that were these influences only continued long enough we would have a development of a higher type of manhood and a higher type of character in every respect. This is the work that the Dominion Association is engaged in—to develop a higher type of manhood; and every teacher engaged in that work has consecrated himself to do like the Knights of the Round Table as told by Tennyson in Guinevere. Just let me read the oath taken by the Knights of the Round Table and show how aptly it fits the obligation of the teacher. King Arthur says:

> "In that fair order of my Table Round, A glorious company, the flower of men, To serve as model for the mighty world, And be the fair beginning of a time."

Now, here is the oath :

"I made them lay their hands in mine and swear To reverence their King, as if he were Their conscience, and their conscience as their King."

There is where the teacher teaches loyalty; "To break the heathen and uphold the Christ,"

That is the religious side of the school;

"To ride abroad redressing human wrongs,"

The missionary spirit;

"To speak no slander, no, nor listen to it,"

The professional spirit--to honor his own word as if his God's.

"To lead sweet lives in purest chastity, To teach high thoughts, and amiable words And courtliness, and the desire of fame, And love of truth, and all that makes a man."

I say, ladies and gentlemen, if we only could get the 23,000 teachers of Canada to fulfil that oath to the letter, the millennium would reach Canada far sooner than it will reach any other planet in the solar system. That is our idea, and to that we aspire. We also endeavor to reform the morals of society. Is not this a remarkable result? In 1870 the famous English Act called the Forster Act was passed, by which Board Schools were established all over England. Prior to the passing of that Act, the number of criminals was something alarming to the economists of England. I will just give you a figure or two. The number of prisons was 113; last year there were only 57 prisons in England. So greatly had the number of prisoners shrunk that half the prisons were abolished. Six of the convict

prisons, capa prison on th tions and a 1 of England. London; las 2,858 persons 833. In 187 26,000. The last year 2,87 land, which l have done a g of crime. If how it adds And this rem of note: In] jails were of our jails of y cent, a very s claims for itse country in a v education. T child in Engla is £15; that t a convict in a ment for crime resources of th \$8.54 for the e costs \$19.21 to clothing; and tral Prison. want that fact times meet wit tion is expensiv a week for text the education o intellectual edu Province \$187 without any d power, are exer on the one mill teacher so engag

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prisons, capable of holding 6,000, were closed, and the old Clerkenwell prison on the banks of the Thames has been razed to its very foundations and a magnificent Board School erected on its site by the city of England. In 1870 there were 31,225 prisoners in the jails of London; last year there were only 13,077. In 1870 there were 2,858 persons sentenced to penal servitude; last year there were only 833. In 1877 commitments under 21 years of age were 30,000; last year 26,000. The commitments under 16, 8,900 in 1877; the commitments last year 2,872. The inference from all this is that the schools of England, which have increased from about one and a-half to five millions, have done a great deal for the reformation of the masses and the reduction of crime. If it be true, then, that the teachers are such a moral police, how it adds importance and weight and influence to the profession ! And this remarkable circumstance in the history of Canada is worthy of note: In 1882-3 17.5 per cent. of the whole commitments to our jails were of youths under 21 years of age. Last year commitments to our jails of youths under 21 years of age amounted only to 12.3 per cent, a very substantial reduction. Then this Dominion Association claims for itself that it is calculated to economize the resources of the country in a very peculiar sense. Just let us look at the cheapness of education. The English blue-books show that the cost of educating a child in England is £2 2s.; that the cost of an inmate of the workhouse is £15; that the cost of an inmate of the jail is £24; that the cost of a convict in a convict jail is £40. Education costs us \$10; punishment for crime, say \$200. We are the economists; we are saving the resources of the people. Take Ontario, and what do we find? It costs \$8.54 for the education of a child in the Province of Ontario; but it costs \$19.21 to furnish each prisoner in a jail with fuel, food and clothing; and it costs say \$187 to take care of a prisoner in our Central Prison. Which is cheaper, the school house or the prison? I want that fact to be impressed upon the people everywhere. I sometimes meet with people who say our system is expensive, and education is expensive. Why, it does not cost the citizens of Toronto a cent a week for text-books, and it only costs you sixteen cents a week for the education of the average child; but if, through want of moral and intellectual education, they go to the Central Prison, then it costs the Province \$187 a year. Thus, teachers, you assembled here to day without any display or attempted display of intellectual or moral power, are exerting constantly that influence which I have indicated on the one million children of every denomination of Canada. The teacher so engaged, in British Columbia and in Manitoba and in the

Provinces lying to the East, is doing work of an important character which I know you appreciate; and before this Convention is over I am sure every teacher will be impressed more and more with the importance of developing those powers which will make him efficient in the various departments of life in which he is engaged. There is just one thought more. We hope through the influence of the Dominion Association, supported as it is by the influence of the various Associations of the country, to infuse into the political and municipal life of Canada a higher degree of intellectual culture and intellectual power. Notice this fact about the English House of Commons: Out of 670 members, 371 are graduates of some British University-more than one-half. Shall we hope, ladies and gentleman, that the time will come when those Universities that have been endowed partly by the State, and those that have been endowed by the munificence of private benefactions, will interpolate into the political institutions of Canada that intellectual vigor and that intellectual culture which has made the House of Commons the grandest deliberative body on the face of the globe? It is for the teachers of Canada to do it. It is for the people of Canada to realize, as Burke has said, that legislation is a matter of deliberation and judgment, and not of caprice; and it is when we have infused into our municipal institutions the intellectual training of the school room and the University, and so into our Legislative Assemblies, and so into the highest assembly of this country, that we will get that steady, progressive, liberal, comprehensive legislation which this great Dominion of Canada requires, and which it is entitled to because of its position. We are working for this end. We accept the welcome which you have given us because that is our purpose. We brace ourselves to these duties, and we know that the people of Ontario and the people of Canada will appreciate the work in which we are engaged. Besides what I have to say myself in response-and perhaps I have attempted to say too much-I have great pleasure in being able to tell you that you will have some words of response from the other Provinces of the Dominion. Colonel Baker, who is Minister of Education for British Columbia, will reply on behalf of the West; Mr. Sifton is elsewhere engaged and will not be here. I will mention the gentlemen in the order in which they appear, and now relieve you of further observations from me by asking Colonel Baker to speak to us from that beautiful Province that sleeps along the Pacific Ocean.

COLONEL B

MR. MAYOR of the Domini which have length of my British Colum as a country of until the adv removed from that the salub say the magni attention which quence we find respect to popu glad to say, fa Some idea ma Province when her already sp able from abser Columbia to-da excise 200 per Dominion. Ar which she poss seaboard on th which place her her easy access three hundred r to the most en trespassing or g say that Britis partner of this must feel impr (Hear, hear.) Atlantic Ocean while between t of Europe, name very immensity must of necessit and differences i a conflict of inte it therefore bec

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MR. MAYOR and MR. PRESIDENT :--- On behalf of the Western Province of the Dominion, I beg to thank you for the cordial words of welcome which have been given with so much lucidity and sincerity. The length of my speech shall not be proportionate to the distance to British Columbia; but I can truly say that we regard our Province as a country of magnificent areas and possibilities-(hear, hear)-but until the advent of the Canadian Pacific Railway, it was so far removed from communication with the great centres of civilization that the salubrity of its climate, the beauty of its scenery, and I may say the magnitude of its resources, have only recently attracted that attention which their importance so richly deserves; and as a consequence we find to-day that British Columbia is but an infant giant in respect to population; but the rapid growth of her industries is, I am glad to say, fast developing this infant giant into robust manhood. Some idea may be formed of the natural wealth of that favored Province when I state that notwithstanding the scattered nature of her already sparse population, and the drawbacks which are inseparable from absence of easy communication between the people, British Columbia to-day pays into the Dominion Treasury for customs and excise 200 per cent. more per capita than the other Provinces of the Dominion. And when we take into consideration the great advantages which she possesses from her geographical position, with her extended seaboard on the Pacific Ocean and her numerous magnificent harbors, which place her in touch with the principal markets of the world, with her easy access to the Chinese and Japanese empires, numbering over three hundred millions of people; and last, but not least, her contiguity to the most enterprising nation of the world, I feel, sir, that I am not trespassing or getting within even the bounds of exaggeration when Isay that British Columbia is destined to become the predominant partner of this great Dominion of Canada. All who are here present must feel impressed with the grandeur of the Dominion of Canada. (Hear, hear.) We know she rules from Provinces which touch the Atlantic Ocean upon the one side to the Pacific Ocean upon the other, while between these two far-distant points there lies the future granary of Europe, namely, Manitoba and the North-West Provinces. But the very immensity of these areas carries with it a consciousness that there must of necessity be great differences in climate, differences in pursuits, and differences in historical associations, which will occasionally create a conflict of interests among the various sections of our population; and it therefore becomes the duty, and it should be the pleasure, of all

loyal Canadians to endeavor, as far as may lay in their power, to weld together such discordant elements into one harmonious whole. Mr. Chairman, I cannot conceive anything better calculated to bring about so desirable an end as a national associational gathering such as we see here assembled in the fair city of Toronto, because the objective of this assembly of educationalists is the uplifting of the rising generation into a higher order of being; and if we can accomplish that, why then everything else which we may desire is sure to follow in its natural sequence. Therefore, Mr. Mayor and Mr. President, on the part of the Province which I have the honor to represent, I beg to thank you for the welcome, and I may say the privilege which you have been good enough to afford me, of sharing in such a noble and beneficent undertaking.

THE CHAIRMAN :---Mr. Parmelee, the Secretary of the Protestant Schools of the Province of Quebec, represents Quebec. We expected the Hon. Gideon Ouimet to be present, but owing to his retirement from the position of Chief Superintendent of Quebec a few days ago, he thought it would scarcely be proper that he should come, and Mr. Parmelee is here to represent the people of our sister Province. I have great pleasure in calling on him to address you.

MR. PARMELEE expressed the regrets of the Hon. Gideon Ouimet, the weight of whose seventy-four years prevented him from undertaking a journey of a thousand miles. His successor, Hon. Bouchard Labier, took office only last Thursday, and asked the speaker to represent him. The Protestant minority of the Province of Quebec, whom I more intimately represent, have great cause for thankfulness for the manner in which Hon. Mr. Ouimet has administered the Department of Public Instruction for the last twenty years. Somebody asked me whether Mr. Ouimet had resigned on account of school difficulties. Why, we never have any school difficulties in the Province of Quebec. He always felt it necessary to leave to Protestants the largest measure of freedom in educational matters consistent with his position as Superintendent of Education, and thus has done much to make our system, of which we are so proud, work well for the minority of the Province of Quebec. Perhaps it is not necessary to praise a man for doing right, and when we do so it may be an indication that the sense of justice is somewhat wanting in our age; but so well has Mr. Ouimet performed his functions as an impartial administrator of law in the Province of Quebec that I am glad here to make this acknowledgment, as I had the opportunity of making to him publicly

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a few days before he left his office. For twenty-five years his successor has been a journalist, and the gentlemen of the Fourth Estate here can give him a certificate of character; and we expect to receive from him the same liberal treatment we have received for so many years before. On behalf of the million and a-half of people in the Province of Quebec, and on behalf of the French Canadians who were so anxious to be present, I accept the very hearty welcome you have given. The reason you have no French Canadians with you is not lack of sympathy, but backwardness in the use of English before public audiences, and we know that a large proportion of the people in such an audience as this would have some difficulty in following a speech in French. You have given us an abundant welcome, through His Worship the Mayor, to the greatest city of the greatest Province of the greatest Dominion of the greatest planet that we know anything about experimentally. We have been welcomed also in felicitous terms by the President of the greatest University, etc.just like the House that Jack built. We have also been welcomed by the culture of the Province of Ontario through the representative of the Teachers' Association of this Province. We accept all these welcomes in the spirit in which they are given, and we trust that our stay here may be pleasant and profitable.

THE CHAIRMAN :- Dr. McKay is Chief Superintendent of Education for the Province of Nova Scotia. He will speak for that beautiful Province by the Sea.

DR. MCKAY, expressed his appreciation of the welcome on behalf of Nova Scotia and also of Prince Edward Island, whose Superintendent was detained by legislative duties. Those who had been able to come up, however, would help to give the proceedings a Dominion stamp, and also to take down to the brethren by the Sea some of the profit obtained from the greater experience and numbers here. He had been very much delighted with the grandeur and magnificence of Toronto, but as these are days when we must stand up for provincial rights, he wished to remark that his Province was pre-eminent in some respects. He did not wish to brag about Nova Scotia in any point which could be disputed. There was no necessity for doing that. Every one knows that the light comes from the East, and when we come up here we are always struck by your being an hour behind us. Then all the environments of Toronto, great as it is, are artificial-except the lake. But we are generous enough to acknowledge that perhaps you have equivalent advantages

at the other end of the day, for instance, and that sometimes, perhaps, the artificial may be even preferable to the natural. We, down in Nova Scotia, perhaps, know something more of you than you do of us. This is a very great Province, and we are always looking in this direction. We know you have about four times the number of teachers that we have. We know also that you can try experiments in the educational field which we cannot do, although I think we spend about as much money per head as you do. Our county officers take a quarter of a dollar from every man, woman and child to distribute among the schools, according to the average attendance. The Provincial Government takes fifty cents from every man, woman and child to distribute to the schools, according to scholarship qualifications of the teachers. Then come the people who, in their own sections, assess themselves for over a dollar more in addition; and I think that is about as well as they generally do. So that we are making the effort in this direction to follow this greater Province. We know, of course, that you are a very stable political country-not subject to revolutions; for our teachers-unless they are very, very old-have to tell their pupils that from time immemorial, so far as their memory is concerned, you have been governed by the same man, whose Christian name is suggested by the English Commonwealth, but his commonwealth is perhaps more Christian than that of the suggested Englishman, as the results seem to show. Then we know that you are a very religious people. We all know, who are interested in hagiography, that it remained for this Province to add the Ross Bible to it. As the Mayor has said, you have the grandest school system on this planet, and well that might be understood, for did not we, thirty years ago, under my predecessor here, Dr. Rand, now one of your citizens, lay down the grand lines of our system exactly on your own lines; and have we not been yearly following your examples and your experiments? What greater compliment could we pay you? We are specially proud of Ontario's Minister of Education, and the whole Dominion of Canada owe a great deal to him for his initiative in forming the Dominion Educational Association, for I believe that this is going to supplement what our politicians have been trying to do otherwise. And who can lay sufficient stress upon the power of this great band of 23,000 teachers, if they are only filled with the responsibility of their duties? The remark has been made that there is no aristocracy in this profession. Yes, the kindergarten teacher may be the one whose very words may turn that subtle element of thought which will make all the difference in the world between a man whose life will run to nothing

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and a man whose life will be a credit to the Dominion and to the race. I have heard admissions from some of the greatest men of this Dominion, that they traced their first impressions in the right direction to the quiet and unobtrusive action of a faithful teacher. But the work of these teachers must be supplemented by the higher education, as President Loudon has so forcibly put it. But what is our higher education? It is just for the purpose of leading our men to see the farthest possible outlook, to see as far ahead in time, to see as deep in space, as possible, to understand the drift of the world. They are watchmen placed upon our walls to discern and understand the tendencies of the race and of the age. We must have men trained to see ahead and prepare us for the future, or else we will only be repeating the steps which our forefathers have taken before us, and not fitting ourselves for the subtle changes which many animals on this globe have not been able to foresee, and because of this inability to see have become extinct, not being able to adapt themselves to changed environment. With the Universities supplementing the Common Schools, we will have all we require; and when these are united in their work, we will make that progress in the Canadian Confederation which is necessary for the continuity of the greatness of this country. This is a great country, and although our Provinces have been compared to a string of beads, it is a valuable string of beads-it is a necklace of diamonds across the breast of America. Canada is the zone which breeds men who are hardy, men who are fitted to inherit the earth. The cosmic law, which is stronger than any political doctrine, teaches us that this narrow band, this germinating zone, will, in a century or two, grow till it is broad enough to satisfy every aspiration which, as Canadians, we have.

THE CHAIRMAN :—As this is all we propose to do in this Hall in the way of speaking, it is proposed now to bring this meeting to a close, in order to afford opportunity to visit the different parts of the building and unite in social intercourse. From now till eleven o'clock, please consider yourselves the guests of the Dominion Educational Association and the Ontario Educational Association, and let the evening be one of pleasant memories and pleasant associations.

THREE GREAT REFORMS—HOW MAY WE HASTEN THEM?

A. H. MACKAY, B.A., B.Sc., LL.D., F.R.S.C., SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION FOR NOVA SCOTIA.

One of the special functions of a Dominion Educational Association as compared with simply provincial conventions, is the correlation of 'movements leading to important reforms, which from their nature can not be carried out or even initiated in one province alone, or in one section of the English-speaking world.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

One of these is the reform of our weights and measures in order to throw out of the common schools (Elementary, or Public Schools, as you say in Ontario), the compound rules so called. This not only would lessen the tangle of unnecessary Mathematics now forced on young pupils, but it would give time for a more thorough training in accuracy and rapidity in the great mass of computation work more or less necessary to the every day business of life. The Mathematics of the non-decimal scales of notation can be acquired by those who need it, in the High Schools, at an age when the whole can be understood and assimilated in one hundredth part of the time. This would cause a great saving of severe effort on the part of pupils, which could be utilized in some more practically useful way, as every one knows.

But this change in the school work implies necessarily a change in the system of weights and measures used in the whole country, and not only in one province but in every province of the Dominion, and not only here but also necessarily in the British Empire and the United States. If the change could be introduced without much difficulty, every one would say at once, let the change come. The additional simplicity of all common and even uncommon calculations would be a tremendous boon especially to the world of trade and commerce, once the difficulties incident to the act of changing should pass away. Then again the decimal system would put the whole English world of trade and commerce more in touch with the rest of the world, a matter which is becoming so strongly felt in business circles, that not a single great English trade congress is now held without a discussion of the necessity of the change.

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and nearly a quarter of a century since it was legalized in Canada. Our Governments have said to the people, "We give you full liberty to use the new and more simple system." But there is no one to show how it is to be done. The more civilized we become, the more bounden we become to each other, the more difficult is it for the few to follow a different line from the multitude in matters having a common relation to each. It becomes necessary, therefore, to organize for the simultaneous accommodation of all affected by such changes of common conventions. So long as we are content with the old, the Legislature is not going to disturb us with the compulsory adoption of any thing new for our benefit. For the Legislatures represent us. The last trade congresses held in Montreal, Canada, and in London, England, for example, revealed a growing anxiety in reference to the matter. English catalogues are beginning to give their quotations in the metric as well as in the old English system, for it is found that foreign buyers being better acquainted with the metric system, order German or French goods at higher prices than the English, because they do not understand the English quotations so readily. In all foreign exporting establishments it is necessary to have clerks understanding and using the two systems. But these business firms are not the people to organize for the general introduction of a change of this kind. They may call for clerks who can do the foreign work as well as the home work. They must accommodate themselves to the conditions they find. Their business is trade, not education. Whose is this work then? Is it not the work of the educators? But the educators cannot well begin by changing the customs in one province or state. The introduction must be simultaneous, probably throughout the whole Empire, at the very least throughout a continent.

I would, therefore, suggest that this Association should appoint a Committee to co-operate with similar Committees which may be appointed by the National Educational Association of the United States, and the highest corresponding organizations in Great Britain and in the more important colonies. The object would be to co-ordinate a movement through the whole English-speaking world to impress on the Education Departments and ultimately on the Governments the advantages of a simultaneous change, and to prepare the people for the same, so that the inconvenience caused would be reduced to a minimum. If the Dominion Parliament, for example, passed an Act this summer making it advantageous to use the metric instead of the old system, the Education Departments of our provinces could have matters so arranged that within one month the whole system could be practically well-known

throughout every settlement in each province. In every school the common metric standards are, I assume, now required to be present. The next bulletin from the Education Departments would direct the teacher to instruct each of his pupils to prepare and carry away from the school roughly accurate copies of the various school standards. Within one week every one of each family would have a very good idea of the new system. The family quotations of the market-or the quotations of the family market-would very soon be converted into the new; and with very little more difficulty than the change of the old pounds, shillings and pence into dollars and cents a few years ago, we could now introduce the entire decimal system into effect, the instant there is some authoritative intimation that the change is going to go everywhere into use. Such an intimation is all that we are waiting for now. The only want is the co-ordinating commission or authority which every part of the English-speaking world will feel ready to acknowledge for such a purpose.

The scientific sections of the English-speaking people are practically a unit in favor of the system. In fact it would be a great relief to them, as they would then need only one system, whereas now they need two. If any wooden-headed Saxon does not like the system because the French were the first to put the new idea into effect and turned the same out into the world dressed in orthography Parisian—" metre,"—he can by simply turning the tail of the dress-coat make it a very respectable English costume for a genuine Greek descendant—" meter,"—of whom no one is jealous to-day. He can reflect that as the system is based on the size of the world its nationality after all must more particularly belong to that people who have the most extensive mortgage on the terrestrial sphere. And if such reflections do not smooth away his objections, then you have made a mistake,—it is not an Anglo-Saxon you have in hand at all.

Then the system is as natural, when we once become used to it, as the present, notwithstanding the largeness of the decimal ratio. The millimeter is the *line*. The centimeter is the breadth of the *nail* of the little finger. The decimeter is the *hand*—the breadth of the palm. The meter is the *stride* or long pace. The square millimeter is the *point*. The square centimeter is the square *nail*. The square decimeter is the *palm*. The square meter is not much more liberal as a unit of "squatting room" than the square yard, but it is no worse. The cubic millimeter is a very fair *grain* of volume. The cubic centimeter every one has at the top of his finger—the top of his little finger if he is a very great man. And if he is not altogether too big for it,

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his fist may be enclosed in a cubic decimeter box. And he can have his whole body shipped in a cubic meter box, with room for sufficient packing to enable him to sleep comfortably during transit. As the human body has about the same specifc gravity as water, the cubical tip of his little finger gives him a convenient unit of weight--the gram. While the cubical box into which he can thrust his fist gives a convenient unit for the measure of capacity-the liter. These natural measures are just as accurate as the original natural Troy grain, the original king's foot, or the original English, Flemish, Scotch, or French elbow. And if the present terms are too cumbrous there is more than one way in which we might suggest the reduction of their size to a simple monosyllable, or at least to a dissyllable. Thus the technique of all calculations would be enormously simplified, and so would the course of study in the common or elementary schools, which should be complete in itself for all common practical purposes. And after all, such a course, I believe, would be the most logical (from psychological considerations) as well as the most economical introduction to the High School course, while it would be imposing no unassimilable, hard-labor gymnastics on the overwhelming majority, who can never take a High School course.

SPELLING.

Another much more important and much more difficult reform, which when it comes will save us two years of the effort now uselessly, and I believe injuriously, made in the eight years of our common or elementary school course, is the reform of English spelling. Such a reform cannot be rapidly introduced without the organization of a body which would be recognized throughout the English-speaking world as a sufficient authority for the adoption of changes recommended. The duty of originating a movement for the creation or evolution of such a body lies, primarily, I think, with the higher educational organizations. But why should we seek to change our beautiful English spelling? I fancy I hear some one who takes great delight in revising with the most precise accuracy the proofs of some of our most perfect specimens of books or magazines. Now I am sorry to say anything which might appear to value at a low rate the accomplishment of perfect spelling, and more especially if that should be the sole accomplishment of which any individual present is chiefly proud. To change the orthodox spelling of English would be to sweep away from him the one accomplishment for which he appears specially to exist. What would the saving of millions of dollars to the world be for him whom it should

rob of the power of using his sole accomplishment? Simplest vanity ! and he is therefore ready to die with his head to the field and his feet to the foe, or in any other position in which he may fall. He will die a martyr for the proper collocation of letters in a word. His fetish is Webster, or Worcester, or the Imperial, or some other little god, who was raised to the rank of a letter constellation by his servile worship of numerous and lesser fetishes, including the ancient anonymous scholar (?) who first spelled sovereign with a "g," because he didn't know better; of the man who thought he might as well stick an "1" into what is now our "could," in order that it might bristle a little more like its fellow privates "would" and "should," who were regularly equipped with a silent gun, and a host of others. Now every one understands it is necessary for us to have some authority to follow; but when it comes to saying that we should follow the blunders made by ignorant people at different ages for ever and ever, because they are English now, without considering whether they might not be changed with a great deal of advantage to all concerned, this is a position none of us will take. A standard is necessary. But never let us cease seeking for a better standard, when the only one we have is grossly defective from so many points of view.

Is it so very defective? If you ask that question (as many whose attention had been called to the matter for the first time have asked), you must pardon my reference to what many will consider very commonplace facts. We cannot by a simple effort of memory recall what the acquisition of correct spelling cost us. For this reason. Good spellers commenced to spell accurately from the beginning of their reading career. The difficulty of spelling is all merged in their consciousness with the essential difficulty of all youthful learning in general. Or they were impressed rather with their success as compared with that of others; so that their impressions in connection with spelling may be those of success and pleasure. But when we observe the same operation going on at the present day, we see that the greatest genius in the orthographic line spends a very considerable portion of time, and utilizes for the trifling matter of the collocation of letters millions of brain cells. This produces the inevitable mental symptoms The effort is doubly injurious, first as a time-destroyer, of cram. second, as a useless if not positively injurious mental wear. The latter I believe is positively injurious when we consider the more important mnemonical strata which by the same effort could be made a permanent part of the ever thinking and acting personality of the human soul. But I leave the psychological question for the time problem which of

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Dr. Morell I in the civil ser not failed in g time and patie to use. I am m spell a word u sort of organ the two, and a classes." He t education and the expense.

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itself is enough to settle the fact that the evil is far too expensive to be tolerated for a single hour longer than necessary.

Dr. Morell has stated that "eighteen-nineteenths of the men who fail in the civil service examinations fail in spelling, and all of us who have not failed in government examinations know very well what a cost of time and patience it is to have to recall the spelling of words we want to use. I am not ashamed to say that I sometimes do not know how to spell a word until I put it down in writing, and it commends itself to a sort of organ—I cannot call it sight or thought, it is something between the two, and an enormous amount of time is wasted in that way by all classes." He then goes on to show that the loss of the scanty time for education and its injurious mental effects are a great deal worse than the expense.

Will not those who have not previously given attention to this subject, feel now the truth of the remark made by Richard Morris, Lecturer on English Language and Literature, at King's College, London, and author of several classic works on Historical English Grammar, when he stated that "adults who by some good fortune or other have become proficients in the subject, and have managed to master the intricacies of our orthography, and have become what is rarely found, good spellers, no longer have a true appreciation of the obstacles they have surmounted. All the severity of the previous toil is forgotten and they feel little or no compassion for the young learners who are daily undergoing the drudgery and weariness imposed upon them by the mistakes and blunders of past generations."

When the Roman letters were adopted for the writing of English, it was the undoubted intention to write the English as phonetically as the Latin. If that were done from the earliest times we would now have a perfect history of the development of the language in the literature of the past down to the present day. But although the language changed, the scribes preserved the same form of spelling, thus erasing so far as they had the power of doing it, all records of the course of evolution of the language, so that at the present day, I doubt if any one can tell when our vowel sounds. "a", "e", and "i", for example, diverged from their continental values. In fact, the phonetic spelling of the middle-English "Ormulum" of 800 years ago, which probably made it an object of contempt to the contemporary scribes of the times, has turned out to be the best key in the hands of the philologist to unlock the arcanum of ancient Saxon orthoepy, as well as that of early English.

Were our language phonetic in its written form, our children could

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be taught to read anything about which they could talk intelligently within two or three weeks at the longest. The most unpleasant and monotonous work of their early years at school now, would then have vanished. Every sound having its sign and every sign representing its sound, the task is simply mastering some 40 signs. But now the English language has at least 200 signs, some computations put them at 563. This is a larger alphabet than the most of us thought we had mastered. But that does not represent all of the labor we have gone through, for to make the matter ten times worse, when you get one of these 563 signs you can not say for certain which of the sounds it should have, unless you have heard it before and memorized the association. For instance, the sound of "e" in meet is represented by no less than 40 combinations of letters; of "a" in mate, by 34; of "o" in note, by 34, etc. On an average there are said to be 14 different ways of writing the 40 different sounds of our language. The word scissors has been calculated to be capable of being spelled according to good English analogy in no less than 596,580 different ways. The simple, euphonious and beautiful name of this queen city of the centre of Canada can be spelled according to good analogies Phthawelaughmnthough, Toronto. (See phthisic, awe, colonel, aught, mnemonics, Thames, though)

Now the difficulty of spelling meets us at the threshold of school life. The short simple words first presented to the pupil are so unphonetic in their character that even in our Normal Schools there may yet be found some who argue that the phonic method might be better by an infinitessimal degree for the easy advance of the child, some, who contend that the phonetic method would have the advantage, others, that the "look and say" method might make a gain, and still others, that nothing after all is very much better than the old a, b, ab, e, b, eb, i, b, ib.

Let us only look accurately into our own experience. I was one of the good spellers, as it were by nature. In a three days' examination on twelve different papers the Examiners had not a single mark scored against me for a word misspelled. These were the days before I made much acquaintance with any other language than English. Since then my eye has been accustomed to very many examples of cognate words in other languages, as a general rule, more phonetically spelled. I have a suspicion that my eye has grown more tolerant of an un-English spelling now, especially if it deviates from the simpler forms of the same in other languages. But let me to my school.

I remember companions who started with the notion that the letters

of the alphabe established by viction that th was " could "; but dough w facts at six ye noble young cl tradictory affir youth. But th day after day, running off to sulky conform The spirit of g his victory, and had at first my certain sounds. mula might rea tually I rose to and said in my dent companior I adjusted myse

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of the alphabet represented certain sounds. As soon as this idea was established by a few examples, it was followed by facts bearing the conviction that these letters represented rather uncertain sounds Couldwas "could"; but hould was not "hood." Enough was "enough"; but $d \circ u g h$ was not "duff." And he who could not readily cram such facts at six years of age, was, of course, a duffer. To the praise of my noble young chums be it said, such rapid changes of base, and such contradictory affirmations were revolting to the innocent consciousness of youth. But the rod was over them, and the spelling book under them, day after day, for years. One cut the school and bands of bondage by running off to sea. Others less bold pined for the day of freedom, in sulky conformity to the rules of the schoolroom. But I could cram. The spirit of game was in it. The winner always feels rewarded by his victory, and is stimulated to further exertion. Like the others, I had at first my faith in the teacher's word, that letters represented certain sounds. My faith required to be modified directly, and its formula might read "Letters represent very uncertain sounds." Eventually I rose to the highest generalization of the underlying principles, and said in my haste-" All men are liars." Unlike my more independent companions, I did not struggle against the constitution of things. I adjusted myself to my environment, and hence my survival, I presume.

Two things we had to study at home in those old days,-spelling and the multiplication table. The latter was nothing. We could discover the mystery of the whole table ourselves by the use of strokes upon our slates, pebbles on the roadside, or by the counting of our fingers. And then we had only fifty or sixty numbers to memorize. But words were innumerable to us; and the arrangement of letters beyond any general law which we could then discover. Our time at home and in school was principally absorbed in memorizing, by ear and eye, the collocations of letters which stood for words. The stars formed interesting clusters in the heavens; but our eyes were always directed to clusters of letters. The sepals and petals of the sweet wild flowers decking the roadside, were grouped in fascinating circles of living colors; but our eyes were doomed to grow dim on the black and white groups of letters. The bird's notes smote the ear with rapturous sensations; but the only hallowed pleasure for us was the successful sounding of grotesque arrangements of letters. Letters, letters everywhere ! We were becoming as literary as the Chinese.

"Spell Phthisic" (said our amiable and most conventional teacher, whom we all liked). Jim, a little cunning rebel as he was, answers, "T-i-s-i-c."

"No, P-h-t-h-i-s-i-c," said the teacher, and the dialogue went on.

"Why do you spell it with a phth?"

"To show that it is from the Greek and means consumption."

"Couldn't we know it to be from the Greek and meant consumption without the *phth*?"

"Perhaps you could; but you would have to turn up the dictionary for it."

"And if you spell it with a *phth* you needn't turn up the dictionary, need you?"

"No, you blockhead, that is to say, if you knew Greek, the form of spelling would tell you that it was Greek."

"Do English people generally know Greek before they learn to spell English ?"

"Of course not. What a foolish question !"

"Well, why did they make the word so that we have to learn Greek spelling before we learn English spelling?"

"Why, because that is the right way to spell, who ever heard of it being spelled any other way? And when you learn Greek it will strike you with great pleasure to see how simple the spelling and meaning of *Phthisic* would have been had you only known Greek before you learned to spell."

"Do all English people, then, learn Greek after they learn to spell so as to be struck with this great pleasure?"

"Of course not. But why do you ask ?"

"Well,--I was only thinking. But how many do learn Greek ?"

"Perhaps 20,000, according to the Encyclopædia."

"And how many learn English?"

" About 100,000,000."

"And how many 20,000 are there in 100,000,000?"

"About 5,000, of course. But what of that?"

"Is not that the same as if every one in a town larger than Pictou should be compelled to spend his time in learning English words with Greek spelling, so that *one* boy should have the pleasure of seeing, when he comes to study Greek, that some of the English words he learned were spelled pretty much, although not exactly, like Greek?"

"You had better hold your tongue, Jim, you are a dangerous boyto dare to question the proper way of spelling words, which I have by dint of careful labor for years become almost perfect in, in which I have attained more excellence than in any other subject. You conceited, radical little scamp!—keep mum, and spell *Phthisic*."

Had Jim been able to quote in retort, what a few years afterwards

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Listen to the scholar: "I of learning Englis conceive how it into account the auxiliaries that thing difficult of believes what he will hereafter be novelist, dramate "A more lying which we confus concocted by the flourish that beg

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was stated by one of the most eminent scholars in the English world, A. H. Sayce, Professor of Philology in the University of Oxford, and author of the international text-book, "The Science of Languages," which of the two would have wilted? Here it is, "English spelling has become a mere series of arbitrary combinations, an embodiment of the wild guesses and etymologies of a prescientific age, and the hap-hazard caprice of ignorant printers. It is good for little else but to disguise our language, to hinder education and to suggest false analogies."

The late Connop Thirwall, Bishop of St. David's, author of the "History of Greece," and classical examiner at the Universities of Cambridge and London, says, "I look upon the established system of spelling (if an accidental custom may be so called), as a mass of anomalies, the growth of ignorance and chance, equally repugnant to good taste and common sense."

Listen to the Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone, a statesman as well as a scholar: "I often think that if I were a foreigner, and had set about learning English, I would go mad. I honestly could say I cannot conceive how it is that he learns to pronounce English, when I take into account the total absence of rule, method and system, and all the auxiliaries that people usually get when they have to acquire something difficult of attainment." Max Müller adds, "that a child who believes what he is taught in learning to spell the English language, will hereafter be able to believe anything." While Lord Lytton, the novelist, dramatist and poet, with no lack of vim, uses these words : "A more lying, round-about, puzzle-headed delusion than that by which we confuse the clear instincts of truth in our spelling was never concocted by the father of falsehood. How can a system of education flourish that begins with so monstrous a falsehood which the sense of hearing suffices to contradict?"

Now both custom and the law force us to consume years of a boy's life in what is to him a pure effort of cram, without the first glimmer of philological interest which the older teacher fancies the boy must somehow feel because the teacher feels it himself. But it is impossible for the teacher to transfer his feeling to the boy until the boy has had some of the teacher's experience. But the spelling must be crammed before that is possible; the cramming of what must be to all young children arbitrary agglomerations of letters in many cases lacking the Action of the teacher is the chinese characters.

And what is the time lost in this work. About ten years ago I took some very accurate statistics for the solution of this problem in the town

of Pictou, Nova Scotia, of whose schools I was then Principal. I prepared blank forms for each department to contain the names of all the pupils of each. The teacher was instructed to obtain from each parent or guardian an accurate statement of the time taken by each pupil in the study of home lessons—of each home lesson. From these returns it was a very simple thing to calculate the percentage of home study absorbed in the department of orthography. From the time tables in each department, the percentage of time devoted to orthography in the school room was computed. The gross results were briefly as follows :

Pupils	from	5	to	7	years	were	spending	64	per	cent	\mathbf{of}	time	on	spelling.
66	66	7	66	9	66	66	6.4	47	" "	"	66	66	66	66
66	66	9	66	11	66	66	6 6	37	""	66	66	66	66	66
66	66	11	66	13	66	66	6 6	25	66	66	"	66	66	66

That is forty-nine per cent. of the whole time of study at home, and in school for the first six years was absorbed in spelling lessons. Or over forty per cent. of the first eight years of school time. But making allowance for other work done incidentally in connection with the spelling, such as the study of definitions, etc., and of incidental reading, expression and elocution in the higher classes, more than twenty-five per cent. of the first eight years of school work was absorbed entirely in overcoming the difficulties of orthography, such as do not now exist in simplified phonetic languages as German, Italian, Spanish, Danish, and even Welch. There is nothing more clearly proved to my mind than that the English child is handicapped to the extent of two years' work by the difficulties of our orthography as compared with the nationalities above referred to. What a tremendous boon would a relief of two years' work be to our crowded course of study in our elementary schools! What a splendid opportunity would be given for the study of the correct and fluent use of the English language under such circumstances ! Now the most of our time is spent in drudgery which is not English language at all, but which is so closely connected with it as to create in advance a distaste for the study of the language itself by the unfortunate association.

In the London schools, and in the schools of several of the larger cities of the United States, similar investigations have been made, all proving that the loss of time is from two to three years. Such, beyond the limit of any reasonable doubt, is the time lost in this one feature of our system.

But there may often be worse than lost time in it. Of all tasks for young children, spelling with its polyglot affinities, its half phonetic, half hodge-podge orthography, is the first, as a general rule, to beget a distaste for se get a glimps elementary st potential scie original and in is disgusted. spelling drill. the school-tra once intoxicat will inherit th ated by this p I wish to be ca

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tasks for phonetic, to beget a distaste for school life. Those naturally crammers pass. And here we get a glimpse of another possible effect. I fear our spelling in the elementary stages of school life tends to sift from the great current of potential scientific scholarship in its earliest manifestations, the more original and inventive of its minds. The assimilator passes, the inventor is disgusted. No wonder we have no Shakespeares in these days of spelling drill. No wonder so many geniuses arise outside the ranks of the school-trained. Chinese culture may be very delightful to those once intoxicated with it, but the science-loving, common-sense Japs will inherit the earth. "But surely the evil of our system is exaggerated by this presentation?" I fancy some one says. That is just what I wish to be carefully examined.

Max Müller says : "English spelling is a national misfortune, and in the keen international race between all the countries of Europe, it handicaps the English child to a degree that seems incredible till we look at statistics." Again he makes a rough quantitative estimate: " Millions of children at school might learn in one year, and with real advantage to themselves, what they now require four or five years to learn, and seldom succeed in learning at all." Read the treatise of Dr. J. H. Gladstone, F. R. S., of the School Board of London, in which he deduces from English statistics conclusions as strong as these I have presented. I can quote but a line: "If English orthography represented English pronunciation as closely as the Italian does, at least half of the time and expense of teaching to read and spell would be saved." This is strong testimony to the extent to which the English child in his education, and the English language in its adoption by other races are handicapped by our spelling. Gladstone's researches have been very extensive and thorough. Apart from its spelling, the English language is the most concisely expressive, it is said, of all languages; and by reforming its spelling, besides removing the tremendous difficulty of its orthography, it might be made seventeen per cent. more concise. Such considerations, I have no doubt, prompted the following expression from Jacob Grimm, the great German philologist: "The whimsical orthography of the English language stands in the way of its universal acceptance." As compared with German, the report of the Faculty of the University of Mississippi to the State Legislature, in 1879, makes the following statement in clause 2: "Spelling hinders our people from becoming readers, (1) by the length of time it takes to learn; (2) by the dislike of reading it induces. An average German learns, they say, in about one-third the time."

In this connection I quote a few lines from an address of Pro-

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fessor F. A. March, published in a valuable circular from the Bureau of Education at Washington under the National Government of the United States: "Three years are spent in our primary schools in learning to read and spell a little. The German advances as far in a twelve-month. A large fraction of the school time of the millions is thus stolen from useful study and devoted to the most painful drudgery. Millions of years are thus lost in every generation. Then it affects the intellect of beginners."

He goes on : "We ought then to try to improve our spelling from patriotic motives. If this do not move us, it may be worth while to remember that it has been computed, that we throw away \$15,000,000 a year paying teachers for addling the brains of our children with bad spelling, and at least \$100,000,000 more paying printers and publishers for sprinkling our books and papers with silent letters."

Were our spelling system perfectly phonetic, mechanical reading and spelling could be mastered in less than one year. It is perhaps not generally known that in foreign countries, and even in America and England, our language is taught in some schools at first from phonetic books.

They then pass on to the ordinary English, and find the process to pay. Mrs. E. B. Burnz, of New York, says: "The phonetic teaching in the Fisk school (at Nashville), as elsewhere, proved beyond all cavil, that with phonetic books as much could be accomplished in four months, in teaching to read, as by a year with the common method, and moreover, it showed that there is no difficulty experienced by children in passing from phonetic to the ordinary printed book." How much more satisfactory would the system be were the ordinary book not in existence! Mr. William Colbourne, of Sturminster, England, is quoted as follows: "My little Sydney, who is now a few months more. than four years old, will read any phonetic book without the slightest hesitation; the hardest names or the largest words in the Old or New Testament form no obstacle to him. And how long do you think it took me-for I am his teacher-to impart to him this power? Why, something less than eight hours! You may believe it or not, as you like, but I am confident that not more than that amount of time was spent on him, and that was in snatches of five minutes at a time, while tea was getting ready. I know you will be inclined to say: 'all that is very well, but what is the use of reading phonetic books? He is still as far off, and may be farther from reading romanic books.' But in this you are mistaken. Take another example, his next elder brother, a boy of six years, has had a phonetic education so far. What

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is the consequence? Why reading in the first stage was so delightful aud easy a thing to him, that he taught himself to read romanically, and it would be a difficult matter to find one boy in twenty, of a corresponding age, that could read half so well as he can in any book." Am I not then under the mark, when I say that two years of school work in Canada are uselessly wasted, and worse than uselessly wasted in spelling.

But suppose some one thinks, "what is said is all true, but it would be a pity to spoil the etymology of our language." I shall then produce a greater authority than the thinker to settle his qualms. Max Müller, Professor of Sanskrit and comparative philology at Oxford, England, author of "History of Ancient Sanskrit Literature," and of "The Science of Languages," shall speak : "An objection often made to spelling reform is that it would utterly destroy the historical or etymological character of the English language. Suppose it did. What then ? Language is not made for scholars and etymologists, and if the whole race of English etymologists were really swept away by the introduction of spelling reform I hope they would be the first to rejoice in sacrificing themselves in so good a cause. But is it really the case that the historical continuity of the English language would be broken by the adoption of phonetic spelling, and that the profession of the Etymologist would be gone forever? I say no, most emphatically, to both propositions." On the same point, Professor Sayce, of Oxford, says: "We are told that to reform our alphabet would destroy the etymologies of our words. Ignorance is the cause of so rash a statement." Henry Sweet, President of the Philological Society, London, says: "The notion that the present spelling has an etymological value was quite popular twenty-five years ago, but this view is now entirely abandoned by philologists; only a few half-trained dabblers in the science uphold it." The regent of the "Illinois Industrial University," Gregory, puts it in this way : "Small men will still decry, and ignorant men will deplore the movement to improve English spelling, but it has within it the force of truth and the energy of a great want."

J. A. H. Murray, Past President of the Philological Society of England, and editor of the great Historical English Dictionary, the greatest compendium of English language lore ever projected, says: "The question of etymology was long ago settled and done with by philologists. It is pitiful to see an expression of Archbishop Trench—uttered, when English philology was in its prescientific babyhood, and scarcely anything was known of our language in its earlier stages save the outward forms in which it had come down to us in manuscript or print—quoted

against the rational reconstruction of our spelling. But it is also unfair to Dr. Trench himself, who then stood so well in the front of philology, that we may be perfectly sure that if leisure had been given him to keep pace with the progress of the science, he would now have been second to no one as a spelling reformer. For philology has long since penetrated the mere drapery and grappled with the study of words' not as dead marks, but as living realities, and for these living realities it first of all demands, 'Write them as they are; give us facts and not fictions to handle.'"

The late Professor Whitney, of Yale, says: "Of all forms of linguistic conservatism or purism, orthographic purism is the lowest and the easiest. * * The real etymologist, the historic student of language, * * would rejoice above measure to barter every 'historical' item in our spelling during the last 300 years for a strict phonetic picture of the language as spoken at that distance in the past."

Three years required to master English reading and spelling when only a few months would be necessary with a proper spelling ! Let our farmers, our laborers and artisans, think of the enormous tax put upon them by this system. Thousands of them cannot find sufficient time to get even a good common school education, a fact largely due to our mode of spelling. Think of the time spent, the sacrifice endured by many of our poorer people, to send their children to school for a short time. But in what are they required to spend their time there? First and foremost, in learning what is not of the smallest sensible value to them-for at least two years of their time-and what, in addition, disgusts tens of thousands with everything associated with school education. What would not those two years allow us to do in our course of study? More language drill-useful in its results; more natural science teaching-attractive in its subjects, perception-strengthening in its influence, reason-training in its effects. Less slavery, more love for study, fewer rebels, more recruits for advanced knowledge. Nothing to lose, everything to gain.

The first names in linguistic scholarship and philology in England and America, have declared in favor of reform, the first names in all ranks.

But it may be urged that language is a natural growth, and that no artifical effort can control it. All right. Then let it grow and remove the artificial and false system of spelling which partly represents the language and partly misrepresents it, leaving no record of its growth when it does grow. Then you may turn around and say, "Oh! it was the spelling I meant. Spelling is a natural growth, and nothing artificial can artificial than by the presen injurious forn standard into as absolute a to preserve "sanctified co sacrifice of ou

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artificial can control it." Indeed! We all know that nothing is more artificial than spelling, and that it requires all the art of society aided by the prescriptions of law to preserve its present unnatural and injurious form. All we want is that some authority to change a bad standard into a good may be created. Such an authority must have as absolute a power to change for the better as the present authority to preserve for the worse or the past authorities to originate the "sanctified confusion" we are condemned to worship with the sacrifice of our substance and our children.

Artificial authority has made the Italian and Spanish languages nearly perfectly phonetic. In 1876, a powerful society was formed in Germany for the simplification of its spelling which even then was almost phonetic. In 1880, by ministerial decree, the simplified spelling went into effect in all the elementary schools, and in April, of 1885, into all the higher schools. It is ten years since, but the huge inertia of the English people has not yet been overcome, although they are the peculiar people who have really something to reform, and much to gain from it. The French Academy has come in ahead of us, with the object, as it is stated, " of making the task of learning the language more easy by making its orthography more logical, and thereby to facilitate its use by foreigners." We, with a spelling much more illogical are not yet moving, and with an orthography much more formidable to the foreigner, neglect to utilize to the extent within our reach the unparalleled inducements to acquire the English language to-day. In the new Dictionary now being published under the direction of the French Academy, there are changes made in about 1,200 common words which are to go into use immediately. And these will to some degree change the "look" of the French page, but they will not make the literature any less legible to the reader who has had an hour's practice.

There would be some inconveniences in the change of our orthography. But they would not be at all serious. It would not make the old literature illegble. It would in fact enable our young people to read with our old orthography at an earlier age than they can now, as some of the experiments to which I have referred seem to prove. Within one year the new orthography would look all right to the most fastidious worshipper of our present silent letters. While the present system would look even more forbidding than that in vogue two or three centuries ago does now. Let us briefly review some of the advantages of the proposed reform.

1. Our present alphabet is defective, redundant, and inconsistent; 12

and is not at all used as all alphabets were originally designed to beused, and as they now are practically used.

2. The spelling of English was always changing in its early history although unfortunately not in conformability with the changes in the language itself; and no good reason can ever be assigned why it should be permanently congealed into the rigid, everlasting form of a particular stage of development in the seventeenth century.

3. The spelling of many languages has been reformed by the authority of learned academies or of governments, as ours is by similar authority restrained from undergoing reform. It is evident, that all required to reform our spelling is the creation or evolution of a rational authority for the purpose.

4. It would save at least two years of useless, if not injurious effort in our schools, and give so much more time for the cultivation of the useful, which all of us feel the need of.

5. It would shorten all printed and written matter to the extent of perhaps seventeen per cent., thus cheapening all our literature from the newspaper to the encyclopædia by one-sixth. Every six dollar price would be reduced to five.

6. It would make the written words the everlasting records of the changes taking place in the language, and thus give philology a chance in the future which has to a great extent been lost forever by the false and mischievous conceit of the past.

7. It would tend to make dialects and provincial accent disappear, and to facilitate the growth of a uniform pronunciation, since analogy would not be misleading as at present.

8. It would enable foreigners to learn the English language with infinitely more ease; and with its present potentiality for telegraphic and commercial correspondence over all the world, would rapidly tend to make English the universal language.

9. It would be a great advantage to all English missionary enterprises.

10. In a word: This reform would tend to make school life more happy and moral, school work more useful and extensive, literary products and efforts less expensive, and therefore general learning more advanced and profound. And in the great rivalry of European and Asiatic powers, which is becoming keener and keener from year to year, it would give the English races the critical preponderance, as admitted by Grimm, which would determine the ultimate universality of their language, as well as in their supremacy in commerce, adventure, and arms. Next I ma already, when its favor so reason. It has representative have never y general agree are extremely may be made, will accept n which they we used, and male

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life more literary learning uropean year to cance, as versality , advenNext I may be asked: "Why have we not this spelling reform already, when its advantages are so great, and the array of names in its favor so authoritative?" I would answer: For more than one reason. It has not been brought to the notice of our people. Even our representatives and government officials, in the great majority of cases, have never yet happened to think of it. But the special difficulty is general agreement upon the most practical scheme of reform. Some are extremely radical, wanting no change until a complete phonetic one may be made, which can embrace all languages. Others, simply radical, will accept nothing less than a perfect phonetic system for English, which they would form by retaining all the useful letters at present used, and making new letters for the remaining sounds. And still others who will grant nothing more than the omission of silent letters.

This is another illustration of the necessity of making an effort to secure an authoritative deliverance which shall command the assent of at least a decided majority. The essential value of the reasons determining the conviction of the majority will undoubtedly in the long run determine the final acquiescence of all. Is not the joint authority of the "Philological Society of England" and of the "American Philological Association," greater in a matter of this kind, than a one-man dictionary which merely professes to re-utter the crude orthography uttered before ?

WRITING.

And finally, when we spell phonetically why should we not write phonographically? Once on a time the artistic monks of the olden times in the leisure of their monasteries could make each letter a work of art. But now as the world is living faster, time is felt to be so necessary that the shortest method is worth more money as compared with the longer methods. Why should we continue to represent a sound by a drawing containing perhaps two or three straight lines and curves when the same might just as legibly be made by a single curve or dash? Why should not a legible system of short hand be the one taught in the Public School from the first grade upward? The pupil could do his written exercises at home in at least one-third of the time it takes him at present, so that there would not be so imperative a temptation for him to spoil his writing as exists at present. Who does not know that the writing of a schoolboy varies in beauty inversely as the amount of writing he has to do, and that by the time he gets through College even an Assyriologist may be incompetent to decipher his hieroglyphics? A very legible short hand can be written in one-third of the

time taken to write the same in the ordinary long hand. When leaving the elementary school every pupil would be able to do three times the amount of writing in one hour under such circumstances than he can do at present. Some would be able to report slow speech verbatim. This power would thus become the inheritance of all passing through the elementary schools, and it would do more for literature ultimately than all our present forces combined, as well reduce written language nearly to the same degree of convenience as speech. And yet the school would have no new burdens added to them. In fact the burdens would be reduced by the amount of time saved as well as by the amount of material (pencil, ink, and paper) saved. Now, should any one learn short hand, he will find it useless for purposes of correspondence, and as a consequence its practice is discontinued, and the art may be lost even after the expense of acquiing it. Then, even without school training, people would fall into the short system, because it is essentially more simple than the long system. And only just think how pleasant a prospect it would open to him who could afford to do as much correspondence with one clerk as he can now do with a staff of three or four !

But what system shall we adopt? There is the rub. This matter must be decided for the non-technical educators who are not in a position to settle the matter by experiment. Even if the most of them did attempt to solve that problem by experiment alone, they would be only rendering themselves incapable of fairly investigating any other system than the one first tried. It will not do to start one system in one province, another in another province, and so on. That means civil war in stenography, with all the loss to the general public which the struggle for the survival of the fittest involves. Evolution in the future is going to do business on improved principles as compared with the past. It will prevent, under the reign of science, the reproduction of the unfit, and so save all the loss of energy involved first in the rearing of the unfit, and secondly, in the destruction of the unfit. So that under the guidance of the higher reason of man, evolutionary change may be hurried on with tenfold the old rapidity, and with an hundredfold less cost to existing organisms. If these abbreviated phonetic characters could also with but little deviation from the written forms, be capable of being set up in ordinary type for the printer, the discovery would be a far greater one for literature and society, than the fabled feat of the Theban Cadmus.

This then brings me to the summation of all I have particularly to say. To enable our educational system to advance rapidly, and at the same time w we must or which will unnecessarily done. Shou not take the I then sim Committee o co-ordinate k and that at I with: 1. The The simplific duction of a

same time with the minimum disturbance of, or cost to, present society, we must organize, and from the history of the past lay down lines which will produce the conditions we seek without antagonizing unnecessarily any element of our present constitution. This can be done. Should any one doubt it, even he need not say that we should not take the possibility of improvement into consideration.

I then simply propose at present, that we should appoint a Standing Committee of this Association, to confer with similar Committees from co-ordinate bodies of educators in all other English speaking countries, and that at least these three subjects be relegated to them to commence with: 1. The universal use of the decimal weights and measures; 2. The simplification of English orthography; and 3. The general introduction of a distinctly legible phonetic short hand.

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COLLEGE DISCIPLINE.

REV. THOMAS ADAMS, M.A. (CAMB.), D.C.L. (BISHOP'S COLL.), PRIN-CIPAL OF THE UNIVERSITY OF BISHOP'S COLLEGE, LENNOXVILLE, QUE.

Both the words which go to form the title of this paper are very interesting in their derivation and history, and both admit of a variety of meaning. We have all, for example, heard of the "Marshalsea College," of which Mr. Dorrit was so famous a member, and in that connexion we find that college is an equivalent for "debtor's prison": in a town of Western England a court, or collection or row of houses, sometimes double, sometimes single, with a narrow footway at right angles to the street, is called a College, and these Colleges are crowded like the "wynds" of Edinburgh. The word "College" is often used of guilds or corporations, as the Herald's College, College of Physicians or of Cardinals.

The following definition has been given of "College" :-- "An endowed and incorporated community or association of students within a University." This I take to be an imperfect definition, as I hold the essence of a College to be not the collection of a body of students but the collection of teachers and taught; both divisions being necessary and complementary. A voluntary association for the purpose of selfculture cannot be called a College from the point of view of this paper; as, for example, a Correspondence Class or Chautauqua Circle. The College I mean must not only have teachers and pupils, but must be collected together either for purposes of tuition or residence, or both, and hence the corporate body of persons involved in the idea of College requires the institution of a house founded for the accommodation of the associated persons whose object is learning or teaching. College suggests University. A College and a University are by no means convertible terms. The origin of the Colleges in such Universities as Oxford and Cambridge was in great measure that they were founded to afford food and lodging to poor students, they were more what we should now call hostels at first. As Colleges, they did not at first subject their inmates to regular discipline nor order their studies. The residents would attend the lectures of the learned men whom the University had drawn to itself, such as Duns Scotus, with his thirty thousand scholars at Oxford, or, later, Erasmus at Cambridge. Perhaps it is not generally known that of these large numbers many

were very y passed that students wo was the tem student. In lege is the primary obje maintenance to profit by We may not applied "spe modated tho religious life tinction betw Universities a University member of tl sity; for the undergradua graduates wl not fully me the full grad students forn sity will be members of members. A one kind of s at such Univ sum of its Co from the life as well as Co Colleges con though Colleg them, to insp plurality of Discipline ma tion according a College.

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were very young; of school age in fact, and that a rule was once passed that no one under twelve should be allowed to attend. The students would not at first have lectures in their Colleges; the College was the temporary lodging rather than the intellectual home of the student. In this connexion College presupposes a University; a College is the feeder of a University, not the University itself. The primary object of a College on this system is not teaching, but "the maintenance in an incorporated society of some of those who came to profit by the teaching and other advantages of the University." We may note here that "College" appears to have been very early applied "specially to the houses of religious orders where were accommodated those youths who meant to devote themselves wholly to a religious life "-that is a separated religious life. No doubt the distinction between College and University is more marked in the older Universities than on this side of the Atlantic, yet here a College and a University are by no means synonymous terms. A person may be a member of the College without having any real status in the University; for the University status of the undergraduate is imperfect. The undergraduates are of the University rather than in it. The undergraduates who have matriculated are full members of the College, but not fully members of the University. Those who have the franchise, the full graduate standing, form the University. The undergraduate students form the material out of which the members of the University will be made; nor do they by any means become in all cases members of the University. They are potential rather than actual members. A College might be special or technical, or might teach only one kind of subject. A University must have varied faculties. Even at such Universities as Cambridge, the University is not equal to the sum of its Colleges, but has a corporate life of its own quite distinct from the life of the Colleges. So there might be University discipline as well as College discipline. To University life in many ways the Colleges contribute; but Universities can exist without Colleges, though Colleges of the kind I mean must have a University to work in them, to inspire them, and to regulate them, and, where there is a plurality of Colleges, to co-ordinate them. Thus, whatever College Discipline may be, it will have a different setting or even interpretation according to the view we take of College life and of the nature of a College.

College discipline includes the due subordination of all, whether members of a College or a University, who have not reached adult standing in that College or University: all in the pupil stage.

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If the word College is thus interesting, so is the word Discipline. I find that Discipline implies order, teaching, training and restraint. It really means the state or atmosphere in which a discipulus or pupil should exist. It is the note characteristic of the scholar in whatever grade of the educational arena he may find himself. "Doctrina" is what the Teacher gives, and is the atmosphere in which he lives. "Disciplina" is the sphere of the taught. Discipline can be used in a wide sense and in a narrow sense. It may refer broadly to mental and moral training; it may refer to the same matter exactly as the doctrina referred to above; the words as they leave the Teacher being doctrina, as they reach the pupil they may be disciplina: something to be received, grasped, learned, and inwardly digested. The word discipline has not generally been so much used of the matter taught; it is used rather of the subordination of the taught, the training to act in accordance with rules-whence we have military discipline, monastic discipline, scholastic discipline, College discipline.

The spheres of discipline sometimes clash: soon after the Cambridge Volunteers were organized, a well-known College Don, Fellow of his College, who was a private, left the ranks at the hour of his College Hall without asking permission to fall out from his superior officer, who was an undergraduate. After some hesitation the Don apologised to the undergraduate for the breach of military discipline, and great good resulted to College discipline from the frank way in which the apology was given.

> "He openeth also their ear to discipline." "Their wildness lose, and quitting nature's part, Obey the rules and discipline of art."

Discipline implies subjection to rule, restraint, submissiveness to control, obedience to rules and commands: a College or school is under good discipline not only when its minutest rules are implicitly obeyed, but also when the body of those who are in the state of pupilage readily respond to the helm; when there is a discipline of the will as well as a discipline of the outward act; when the heart guides the head and the hand and the feet of those who are under the rules; when there is an enthusiasm for duty; when officers and men co-operate heartily with each other. Milton says that "Discipline is not only the removal of disorder, but if any visible shape can be given to Divine things, the very visible shape and image of virtue." The best College discipline is a kind of corporate virtue, a kind of collective conscience, involving courage, subordination, co-operation, obedience, zeal for the promotion of the highest life, anxiety that there shall be no loss of effectiveness through frie vidual will (

Discipline is rendered a tisement, pu disciplinariu disciplinary penetrate the punishment College statu undergraduat tain that the to me that w Cambridge di fine, and this have been ple ties, who pro shows that po the letter. T would choose of punishmen to my subject, may be pardor would say this head master a prerogative. tears even soc refractory is p punishment the them in. To Hannington, th at school as oft founded by the the practice of contusion) has b means of discipl themselves to m Ridding.

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through friction and pettiness or through the assertion of the individual will to the detriment of the general good.

Discipline sometimes, for want of the true thing, becomes that which is rendered needful by its absence when it becomes correction, chastisement, punishment. Under this heading we could once place the disciplinarium which was a scourge for penitential flogging, while a disciplinary belt was one to which are attached sharp points which penetrate the skin. It may seem amusing to refer to such details of punishment at this time of day; but not so many hundred years ago College statutes at Cambridge included a reference to the whipping of undergraduates at the buttery hatch of the College, and I am not certain that these statutes have ever been formally repealed. It is known to me that within the last two or three years the Dean of a College at Cambridge did give an undergraduate a caning in lieu of exacting a fine, and this at the request of the undergraduate himself. This may have been pleasing to him, but it did not satisfy the College authorities, who promptly called for the Dean's resignation. The incident shows that possibly the old flogging enactment is still unrepealed in the letter. The undergraduate of this story was like many beys who would choose the swift, sharp stroke rather than a more tedious form of punishment. It is not in my province to-night, though it is allied to my subject, to discuss the question of corporal punishment ; but I may be pardoned for saying that after twenty-two years' experience I would say this branch of punishment should be in the hands of the head master alone, and that he should very rarely, if ever, exercise his prerogative. Strong and kindly and faithful admonition will cause tears even sooner than blows. What we want to produce in the refractory is penitence, not pain. It is just as likely by this form of punishment that we shall harden our pupils as that we shall break them in. To some natures it seems to do no harm, for Bishop Hannington, the heroic martyr of Uganda, is said to have been caned at school as often as ten times a day. Again, at Winchester College, founded by the benign and learned Wykeham, even in our own day the practice of tunding (tundo, I beat, I strike repeatedly, I produce a contusion) has been permitted, I believe, to the prefects or monitors as a means of disciplining the younger boys. These methods do not approve themselves to me, even when defended by such champions as Bishop Ridding.

Is it not the more excellent way that in the true training of the child, so soon as some one who cares for the child (for no one else is fit to be an educator) can show that child that his wrongdoing or moral 13

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shortcoming is a source of mental pain to himself and of injury to the child, then there will be little need to inflict physical pain upon the child. Infinite trouble must be taken in the training and corrective process. And just as we would minimize physical punishments for younger pupils, so would we minimize all punishments for College students tending to degrade or humiliate. For the exercise of College discipline, moral qualities are required rather than mental endowments.

We notice here that the discipline of residential and non-residential Colleges will vary considerably. The residential system brings with it greater scope for discipline, as then the whole life of the student, not only his working hours in the College lecture rooms, will be matter for discipline. For, as far as my individual view is concerned, I must express a decided opinion in favour of gathering men into residential halls as likely to conduce more to good discipline and wholesome corporate life than the scattering of individual students over a city; and if this can be done, it should be done under religious influences; for at no age should religion be kept more attractively before the individual than in those formative years of College life. The corporate life of residential Colleges will be a more varied and richer thing than that of the non-residential College. There will be the discipline of the house as well as of the class rooms. In Oxford and Cambridge this is carried very far, and most of the Colleges are closed for ingress or egress after ten o'clock at night. There are huge doors, like those of an ancient castle; you instinctively look for the moat and the drawbridge; you do see the very formidable-looking spikes on the walls.

A story is regularly told of some unexceptionable and grave personage, such as Dr. Jowett, Master of Balliol, how, when an undergraduate is caught and the torn state of his dress, or it may be of his flesh, betrays him, the sage Master says: "Sir, we managed better in our day; we surmounted the spikes on a saddle." The spikes are still there. The castellated array, the prison like appearance suggests a stern and real aspect of College discipline—a true restraint. When the Colleges overflow and some of the students are allowed to live in lodgings, the landlady is converted into a janitress, and woe be to that lodging-house keeper who tampers with the strict College regulations. The lodging-house is converted into a miniature College outpost or fortress.

These details, even if interesting, must not keep us from the main point, namely, What is to be aimed at and what can be secured in College discipline? We must premise here that the interests of

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authorities and students are really the same. For the existence of the College we have found as essentials (1) authorities; (2) those under authority. They are co-ordinately essential for the existence of the College. So far as government is concerned, the authorities must be paramount, the pupils subordinate. No doubt the authorities will endeavor to seek the well-being of the College as a whole, and the well-being of the students especially. Here a distinction occurs to me between two classes of Colleges, in the first of which there are two classes only to consider, namely, the Faculty or the Master and Fellows who govern the old Colleges, and the graduates and students not on the governing body. The College is then self-governing in that some members of the College govern the College. There are, secondly, other Colleges, most on this side of the Atlantic, I believe, which have a governing body who need not be members of the College. The teachers then are governed as well as the pupils. In a well-known American College there are three sets of persons more or less engaged in the government of the College: (1) The Fellows-a small and very powerful body, generally graduates; (2) the Overseers, who represent an early historical body, but who are now elected by the graduates; (3) the Faculty. Discipline is in the hands of a Dean, who in all important cases consults the President; and the decisions of the Dean can be reviewed by the Faculty.

Where there are Governors other than the Faculty these Governors do not directly govern the students, though the rules under which the pupils are have been approved by them, and the method by which the teachers govern and teach their pupils is subject to the criticism of the Governors. The maintenance of College discipline may probably be regarded as more complicated and difficult in these Colleges than in the Colleges of two dimensions so to speak. The Colleges of three dimensions will be harder to keep in harmony, as there are chances of difference between the governing body and the Faculty. This will increase the difficulty of carrying on discipline, as there will be chances of misunderstanding between the governing body and the Faculty as well as between the Faculty and the student body.

That discipline may be possible in a College there must be rules; there must be penalties for the breach of those rules. But the discipline that is only mechanical will not be valuable. There must be more than is in the bond. There must be the spirit of co-operation, for the letter by itself is insufficient.

One great problem before the authorities of Colleges in this modern time is as to how far it is advisable to entrust any power of self-gov-

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ernment to the students as a body. Two things will help in the matter, first, that the students should remember that their condition is essentially immature, for if they knew everything they would not come to learn, and second, the authorities should remember that they have been students once. On the one side modesty is required, on the other sympathy.

In residential Colleges many details of house discipline might be left to the students themselves to administer, especially when the traditions of the College are good. Traditions vary very much in different Colleges, and often evil traditions are followed instead of good, to the detriment of all. The principles which ought to guide those in authority or under authority are really simple and ought to be paramount.

- (1) Desire for the well-being and good repute of the institution.
- (2) Loyalty.

(3) Justice.

- (4) Enlightened generosity.
- (5) Self-respect.
- (6) Mutual respect.

No doubt all would agree with these as principles. Where disagreement would come in would be in the application of these principles.

In legislation in such matters it is difficult to presuppose enthusiasm on either side; hence the literal keeping of rules does not necessarily augur the highest tone of all in a College, though the breach of rules does show a lowness of tone. Literalism of obedience is good, but enthusiastic service for the common good is better. Let us not then despise even what appears to be the minuteness of rules, while as authorities we should so throw ourselves into our work as to lead our students rather than to drive them. I have often been reminded of the sacred saying that the law is not made for the righteous man but for the lawless and disobedient. However small a College may be it is very difficult to find one without what is generally called the "fast set," and even when this set is not present as opposing good morals, we have another set who, if unrestrained, would subvert the chief end of a College. I mean those students who think that a College exists for the purpose of providing material for athletic contests of various kinds.

The difficulty of according a measure of self-government to students is the anxiety that is felt as to how the power would be used when there are possibly discordant and even turbulent elements. I think as a general rule we can trust the public opinion of the majority of the students to will assert winked and ience of so pupils, throubeen found to Executive w thankless as ously and co by the officia What stril

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when nk as f the students to be on the right side, but we are not sure that the majority will assert itself, or like other majorities, that it will not be hoodwinked and misled by a few talkers or designing men. In the experience of some Colleges which have tried self-government for the pupils, through responsible officers chosen from amongst them, it has been found that the responsibility of that one who was chief of the Executive was no bed of roses, but has been in many ways just as thankless as that of the average College Dean. This shows how seriously and conscientiously the work of discipline has been carried on by the officials elected by the students themselves.

What strikes one sometimes in England is that there is somewhat too wide a contrast between the trust often exercised in the highest boys of a school in its Sixth Form by the Head Master on the one hand, and the comparative suspicion with which the University undergraduate is regarded by the University system of discipline. No doubt many of the University and College authorities are free from this feeling, but the system seems full of suspicion. Reverend Masters of Arts are sent out night after night after dark, accompanied by sleuth-hounds, in the shape of ex-professional runners, to hunt for offenders. Ternyson speaks of one who "breath'd the Proctors' dogs." This is somewhat antiquated as a piece of College discipline but it is not yet extinct. No body of students devoid of an appreciation of the good name of their College, or devoid of personal self-respect, could carry on self-government in matters of conduct and morals. We must have a healthy public opinion, and a high regard for one's fellowstudents is also necessary. I feel sure that the discipline of the College administered conscientiously by the students would put down such cowardly and senseless practices as the various degrees and forms of hazing; and would also render impossible such orgies as have sometimes brought discredit on venerable halls of learning, and would promote manliness and check vice.

The oneness of the body corporate, the feeling of mutual and permanent responsibility would be encouraged and developed. It would soon be felt that idleness was just as much out of place in a student as in a professor, in a College as in a factory, or as cowardice in an army. An idle student would be just as much frowned down by the body of the students, as an idle clerk whose neglect brings extra work upon his comrades. I believe if some of the elements of self-government were given to students and certain officials from amongst themselves, elected by themselves and endorsed by the Faculty were appointed, that such appointments would increase the sense of responsibility of

the students. In a small residential College this can be done through the senior student acting in conjunction with other senior students. If any graduates are in residence, they will receive certain modified authority over undergraduates. Men of the third year where no graduates are found, having a certain authority in certain matters over those in lower years. Thus the seniors are constituted into a rude Senate, and the authorities can in general rely on their cordial co-operation. There would thus be a graded authority of seniority in which all will in time have a share. Certain individuals will no doubt be officials, but the principle of grading has good results as a rule.

For large Colleges with their members scattered over large cities, it is difficult, if not impossible, to carry out any such system; but in such a University as Glasgow, it has been found possible to establish a board of students who are elected with a view of making it easy for the students to formulate their wishes, and the existence of such a board has proved helpful, and has prevented friction. As an illustration of what can be attempted in self-government, I have placed at the end as an appendix, some particulars of an agreement and rules for self-government entered into at a College for ladies in the United States.

We do not for a moment suggest that the students should govern the College; but in the department of morals and conduct, the students are not so immature as they confessedly are in learning. Hence, the sphere of governing themselves as regards morals and conduct, may well call out the students' best side and noblest powers. We do not want to ask their advice as to appointments, as it is said a Whig government once did in the matter of the appointment of Dr. Hampden to a regius professorship, when some one representing that government wrote to young Arthur Stanley, then scholar of Balliol, to ask him his opinion of Dr. Hampden and that of his competers. I would not then delegate to the students any part of the government of the College as such, but I would welcome corporate action on the part of the students, which would develop the sense of moral and collective responsibility, whereby vice, idleness, disorder and meanness, would be discouraged, undermined and abolished by the voices and wills of the student body. The collective conscience of the studentbody is potentially very strong, and when it is roused it will make short work of blemishes in its own body corporate. The more the authorities believe in this corporate conscience and appeal to it and trust in it, the more hopefully and vividly will it be developed, and the more potent for good will it become. There must, of course, be a limit

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to this freedom, and in case of manifest malfeasance or toleration of evil, the authorities must interfere and provision must be made for this. Such provision for the recall of privileges, will be a strong motive on the part of the students for wholesome administration of self-governing rights accorded. Perhaps it would be well besides the officials amongst the students, to have a joint board of professors and students on which possibly alumni might be represented which should be a kind of conciliatory board to which difficulties should be referred. On this board I would suggest that the nominations should not be confined to one body. Thus why should not Professors nominate some students as well as professors for such a board; and students might nominate some professors as well as some students. Some alumni might be selected by both professors and students jointly or separately. The feeling of ultimate union might thus be promoted.

Many influences tend to divide men. Let it be our aim and study to strive to unite them in families, in societies which include Colleges, in civic communities, in provinces, in confederations, in giant empires, in the peace and good will of a regenerated world! Let us harmonize our loyalty and our freedom; is not order but the best mould for liberty, the best condition for the life of liberty? The gospel for mankind is not one of self-assertion either in collegiate or in civic communities; it is one of true self-respect and mutual aid. We need one another. We are members one of another. The authorities of a College will be found working for the students, not necessarily always reminding them that they are students, but showing true leadership. This work for the students will not only include the illumination of the mind but also the correction of mistakes and the occasional pruning of exuberances.

The students will be found working with the authorities, not against them, by following the lead given them in learning, in selfrestraint, in self-sacrifice, in devotion and in industry. Under the influence of Religion as the power that binds for and to good, the sense of duty, the sense of unity, they will co-operate towards a great and noble end.

Individual sense of duty will multiply into corporate conscience.

From my own personal conviction, I would not legislate on a pessimistic theory of the minimum of good on either side. I would assume that the good of the whole is aimed at by all. I would not allow my optimism to delude me into credulity: or my love of humanity to make me a slave to the opinion of numbers. I do not, in this paper, propose to formulate a system, or to decide the details of a scheme.

I believe that Colleges, like all other human institutions, can only be successfully carried on in the spirit of true religion; under a sense of responsibility not only to the traditions of an institution, to the needs of a community, but also to the Divine Presence, which illuminates and ennobles human concerns.

The spirit of unselfishness, the spirit that recognizes the duty of the individual in the presence of its Divine Creator, in the presence of the Glorified Head of our race, full of natural powers and of supernatural grace, should pervade the minds and consciences of those in and those under authority Religion is not a doctrine to debate upon, so much as a principle to permeate life.

The true discipline is that of the heart and of the will. The same Power which makes men and women good will enable members of Colleges to work for and promote the common good. Power must be blended with sympathy and well-wishing. Peace and good-will shall fuse the discordant human elements so that there shall be a great and resistless current of good work, of healthy recreation, of noble enthusiasm. There shall be the discipline of a triumphant host.

As in the corporate production of some great work of musical art, all the instruments and the voices must be in tune and time, and there must be accordant co-operation between the leader, the organist, the instruments and the voices. The combined result is that of many efforts and of much prolonged discipline; so it will be in the great work of education, and especially in the work of those institutions which are the crown of the educational edifice. And as it is amongst other summits, that the springs of the streams that water the land are found, so it is amongst them. Let the materials which form the crown of the arch be well ordered and well cemented every way. Let the waters which flow forth from the springs amongst these summits be pure and fertilizing.

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REFERENCES.

1. STATEMENT CONCERNING SELF-GOVERNMENT AT BRYNMAWR COLLEGE.

11. AGREEMENT CONCERNING SELF-GOVERNMENT AT BRYNMAWE COLLEGE. 111. Resolutions concerning Self-government at Brynmawr College.

IV. CONSTITUTION CONCERNING SELF-GOVERNMENT AT BRYNMAWR COLLEGE.

I.

During the early years of the College life of Brynmawr the fewness of the students and the close contact in which they lived, made it possible to live according to public opinion without any organized plan. If a younger student did something that was not in accordance with the tradition of the place and was thought harmful to the College, some of the older students would tell her as much. But with the great and rather sudden increase in size of the College this method. became impracticable. The College authorities were always most considerate of the students' wishes, and for a year or two the difficulty was met by the Dean's calling the new students together in the autumn and talking over College affairs, telling them what was and what was not the will of the College. For it must be remembered that there has never been a feeling of division of interest or of opposition between the authorities and the students. Almost invariably they agree on what is best for the students, and public opinion, therefore, carries great weight as representing the highest interest of the College as an institution. But in time all came to realize that one such talk, however helpful, was not sufficient to impress fully on the students what they should do. Furthermore, even if they remembered, there was no means of enforcing attention to the suggestions without making them definite College rules and having College officials to see that they were carried out. This our students were not willing to have, as they had always been free to decide according to their own earnest judgment. A plan was conceived, and in time put in execution, which should give them definite power thus to continue their self-control, and in the fall of 1891 the Students' Association for Self-Government was formed. The Trustees of the College granted the students a charter by which control was given them of all matters of the conduct of the students in their College life which were not purely academic, or purely matters of the housekeeping. This control was to be complete (except in the matter of invitations to entertainments, of which the College especially retained control) until such time as the students should prove themselves unable to govern satisfactorily to the authorities. But it was explicitly agreed that the decisions of the Association on

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any given points should be final, and that they should be supported by the College authorities. The authorities will not oppose a single decision of the Association, but will judge the Association only by its work as a whole.

In any new matters that arise the President is consulted if there is any question as to whether or not the matter belongs to the Students' Association, and the President is always informed of decisions made on new points. This is done as a matter of courtesy and in order to enable the College to support the students and to explain their position if it is questioned by outsiders.

The powers of the Association were given to it in a formal charter signed by the President and Dean, on behalf of the Trustees, and by the Executive Board on behalf of the students. Copies of the charter, constitution, and of some of the resolutions enclosed, will explain the organization.

The Advisory Committee has been added within a year, in order to lessen the responsibility of the Board in very important decisions, and to give it an opportunity of more surely realizing the feelings of the students without bringing matters before a general meeting.

In some matters fines have been resorted to, more especially where the rule refers to a matter of routine which is usually neglected through carelessness, such as failure to register absence over night from the hall of residence. Most matters are dealt with directly by the proctors of the Executive Board. If a formal reprimand from the Executive Board were wilfully disregarded, it could be followed by nothing short of a request to the student to live out of College.

As the number of students increases, the labor falls, necessarily, more directly on the officers and less on the body of the Association. The quorum required at the meetings is very large, being two-thirds of all persons studying at Brynmawr. But it was purposely made so large, because we considered that the affairs of the Association were too important to be controlled by a minority of the students. Except for one or two points that the College specified as conditions of the granting of the charter, and which are in reality rather College matters than students' matters, we make and execute our own laws within our proper field, unrestricted except by the necessity of showing ourselves, on the whole, able to wisely hold our trust.

We have no representation in the Faculty, and, as a body, do not often have occasion to lay matters before it. Our relations are with the Trustees, and our communications are made through the President of the College. The Executive Committee of the Students' Association

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o not with ident ation could, at any time, request the opportunity of laying business before the Faculty if there were such need, or it could do this through the President.

Our resolutions deal with such matters as keeping quiet during certain hours in the residence halls, chaperonage in the evening, or to public entertainments, or in the College buildings, and registration for absence over night, etc.

Any general matters of the students' life can be considered and acted on by the officers since they are to "apply and execute at their discretion the will of the Association as expressed in resolutions or otherwise, subject to the power of the Association to intervene whenever it may seem fit."

Any apparent confusion in the relation of the Students' Association to the Dean and President is due to the fact that since the Association organized the office of Dean has lapsed, and the duties and functions of the Dean have been assumed by the President.

II.

Since the foundation of Brynmawr College, the regulation of the conduct of students in their College life has been entrusted in general to the students themselves. Until the present time a system of government, through public opinion, has successfully met the needs of a comparatively small community. But the increase in number of the students has brought with it new conditions; and to meet the difficulties necessarily attendant upon such a change of conditions, unformulated public opinion has been felt to be insufficient.

1. For the purpose, therefore, of giving a definite and permanent expression to hitherto unwritten laws, and of forming a body of support for public opinion, the students desire to organize an Association to be called "Brynmawr Students' Association for Self-Government." To the Association, the President and Dean shall entrust the exclusive management of all matters concerning the conduct of students in their College life, which do not fall under the jurisdiction of the College, or of the mistresses of the halls of residence.

2. In addition to the general reservation, the authorities of the College especially reserve for themselves the regulation of all public and formal entertainments, and invitations to all entertainments.

3. For the mistresses of the halls of residence is reserved the regulation of all matters which, without question, belong to the management of the household.

4. If, when a new matter arises, there is any doubt as to which of

these three provinces of jurisdiction it belongs and who shall deal with it, the Executive Board of the Students' Association shall consult with the Dean before any action is taken by them.

5. The authorities of the College promise to support the Association to the full extent of their power in enforcing its approved decisions. The Association, in return, promises to support the authorities of the College and the mistresses of the halls of residence; and to use its power with earnestness and care to promote the highest welfare of the College.

6. It shall be within the power of the Trustees to request the President and Dean to assume control of all matters touching the conduct of the students, should a necessity therefor arise in the future; and it shall also be in the power of the Students' Association to resign such control should a necessity therefor arise in the future.

7. There shall be appended to this agreement, a copy of the constitution of the Students' Association, which, as long as the above agreement holds, shall be subject to change only after such changes as may be proposed by the Students' Association have been recommended to the Trustees by the President and Dean. There shall also be appended to this agreement a copy of the resolutions adopted by the Association as a memorandum of the general arrangement made between the Trustees and the Association.

(Signed) On behalf of the Trustees :

On behalf of the Students :

President. Dean. College Seal. President. President. Executive Board of the Students' Association for Self-Government.

III.

1. Resolved :—That according to Article V. of the Constitution the executive powers of the Brynmawr Students' Association for Self-Government be vested in an Executive Board of five, of which the President of the Association shall be Chairman.

That the Executive Board represent the Association to the Trustees and Faculty, and constitute a board of appeal for the students.

That the duties of the Executive Board shall be to apply and execute

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at their discretion the will of the Association as expressed in the resolutions or otherwise, subject to the power of the Association to intervene whenever it may see fit.

2. Resolved :—That the immediate responsibility for the conduct of the students in each dormitory rest with three proctors.

3. Resolved :—That the immediate responsibility for the conduct of the students outside the dormitories rest with the Executive Board.

4. Resolved :—That the proctors be elected by the students in their respective dormitories at the beginning of each semester.

That said proctors be subject on election to the approval of the Executive Board, and to removal by it at any time, if inefficient in the performance of their duties.

That there shall be an Advisory Committee of eight, whose duties shall be to advise and act with the Executive Board at the desire of one or more of its members. This Committee shall be elected by ballot in the first fortnight of May, to take office the ensuing October; and the term of office shall be coincident with the College year.

IV.

1. The name of this Association shall be the "Brynmawr Students" Association for Self-Government."

2. The function of this Association shall be to deal with all those questions concerning the conduct of the members in their College life which do not fall under the jurisdiction of the authorities of the College, or of the Mistresses of the halls of residence.

3. The Association shall have the power of inflicting penalties to enforce its decisions, even to the extent of recommending the expulsion of a member to the College authorities.

4. All persons who are pursuing studies at Brynmawr College are members of the Association.

5.-(a) The officers of this Association shall be a President, a Vice-President, a Secretary and a Treasurer. Only graduates and members of the three upper classes shall be eligible as officers.

(b) The duties of the President shall be to call and preside at meetings.

(c) The duties of the Vice-President shall be to assume the duties of the President whenever necessary.

(d) The duties of the Secretary shall be to keep the minutes of the Association, a separate record of all resolutions concerning selfgovernment, a list of members, to post minutes of the meetings, and to attend to the correspondence of the Association.

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 $f^{TT}(e)$ The duties of the Treasurer shall be to collect all the taxes and fines imposed by the Association, and to care for the money of the Association, and to expend the same in accordance with the will of the Association, under direction of the President.

6. There shall be an Executive Board of five, to be composed of the President, Vice-President, and three other members. The President shall be Chairman of the Board. Cf. Resolution I.

7. The Constitution and the Resolutions concerning self-government shall be annually read aloud by the Secretary to the members of the Association at a meeting to be called within the first fortnight of the first semester.

8. A meeting may be called at any time by the President on her own motion, and must be called by her on the application of ten members. When the President is unable to call a meeting on application, it shall be called by the Vice-President, or some person deputed by the one or the other.

It shall be the duty of the Secretary, twenty-four hours previous to any meeting of the Association, to post on the students' bulletinboards in all the halls a notice stating time of said meeting and subject to be discussed. In cases requiring immediate or private action this regulation may be set aside.

9. The officers and the Executive Board shall be elected by ballot annually in the fortnight before, or in the fortnight after the Easter vacation.

10.—(a) Two-thirds of the members of the Association shall constitute a quorum.

(b) In cases of discipline or of an appeal on the part of a minority, a majority consisting of three-fourths of all members shall be required.

11. To amend this Constitution a majority consisting of threefourths of the members shall be required.

Subject to the provisions of Articles I., II. and III. of this Constitution, a majority of those members of this Association who may be present at a meeting of the Association and in the presence of a quorum shall have all executive and legislative powers not prohibited in this Constitution, and it may confer authority upon the officers or upon the Executive Board, or upon any Committee or Committees which it may hereafter constitute.

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ADDRESS.

MR. A. E. WINSHIP, BOSTON.

I would not have you think that I desired you to stay to-night as long as I propose to talk, but I have sat here for an hour and a-half and listened to these few gentlemen, and I think it is only fair that I should keep them listening to me for an hour and a-half. I have wanted a chance to speak to an audience in this part of the land for a time. I have spoken two thousand times in the States upon education, and I have been waiting ten years for an opportunity here. I have got the invitation but not the opportunity. They are two very different things, as you can well understand. I wish very much that I could say something to you regarding the educational tendencies of the day, as I see them from a fairly good opportunity of observing them. It has been my privilege in the last ten years to visit nearly five thousand schools in more than thirty of the States and territories of the United States. It has been my privilege to watch very sharply the tendencies as we have seen them develop in these ten years. I see many discouraging signs. I think that the one thing I would say to-night had I the opportunity would be this, learn from the tendency of the times to be neither a crank nor a conservative. I say to you that I am afraid of a crank. I do not mean by a crank a man with one idea. A crank never has an idea. He gets as far as the "I," and he puts the dea before the I, and he magnifies the dea I tremendously. He thanks the Lord every morning that he is the only man on the face of the earth that knows enough to agree with the Lord, and at night he pats the Lord on the back, so to speak, in a patronizing way, and congratulates the Lord on knowing enough to agree with him. I desire that the educational world may be delivered from the crank first, last and always. But of the two if I were to choose between the crank and the conservative I would choose the crank.

The conservative is the fellow that sits on the tail of progress and shouts "woe" from morning till night, from the first day of January to the thirty-first day of December. May the good Lord have mercy on education work when the conservative rules. But there is an opportunity, and it is a grand opportunity, for a man that knows enough, and has grace enough, to be neither a crank nor a conservative. I speak of the States of which I know much, and I say naught of your country, of which I am just taking my first lesson.

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I speak of the States when I say that we are in great danger of drifting from the teacher to the specialist who do not know how to specialize. I respect and reverence the specialist who can specialize, but I have only contempt for the educationalist who presumesto be a specialist without the brains or patience to specialize. And we have several, and are suffering in the States from that very much, and we have only just gotten the courage, some of us, to speak out in meeting, and speak clearly. We are going to have a very lively time down across the border during the next few years unless we get on to a healthier basis than we have been drifting on lately. We have a meeting of the National Education Association in Denver next July, and I was looking over the programme for it. We have twenty-eight parts on the programme proper for that meeting. There is not on that programme* a single kindergartener, primary school teacher, school principal, or secondary school man. On that programme there is not a teacher that represents ninety-nine per cent. of all the children in the United States represented. Now think what that means, will you, just for a minute? They are calling that an association of teachers without a teacher on the programme out of the twenty-eight parts.

Now, I speak with some earnestness when I say that we are drifting into the magnifying of terrible little things. For illustration, some of us down there want a child to learn above 5, or at the most 10, the first year. I once made the remark that I thought the average child when he came to school knew 5. I made that remark in my paper, and I got a great many letters from all over the United States telling me that I did not know what I was talking about. Never had any children. We have only six in our family, that is all. I have one letter from a principal in a Western State, and if he did not roast me then it is no matter. Some time afterwards I happened in that school. When I was introduced to the principal he said, "You don't remember me, do you ?" "No sir," I said, "I do not." "Well," he said, "I am the fellow that roasted you for saying that you thought a child knew 5." "Well," I said, "I think most children do. Some children probably don't." "Well," he said, "I am going to show you." So he took me down stairs into the room there, where the children had been in school within five months, and called up one boy after another, and every one of them was ready to take his oath that he did not know 5. He knew 4, he knew 3, he knew 2, and he knew 1, but he did not know 5. One was a boy six years old-a large fellow for his age-and I heard some marbles rattling in his pocket, and I heard them calling him Johnnie. I said, "Johnnie, how many marbles have you got in your pocket."

He answerd them." He nickel, and looked at a replied, "I he had died an amount b have been of

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He answered, "Thirteen." I said, "I will give you a nickel for five of them." He replied, "It is a bargain." I got the marbles, he got my nickel, and I wish you could have seen the school principal. First he looked at Johnnie. "You told me you did not know 5." Johnnie replied, "I don't, sir." He did not. He would not have known 5 if he had died for it, because he was not expected to. Now, we have had an amount of nonsense along that line in the States that I hope you have been delivered from in the Provinces.

Now, I say to you there is coming another tendency grander than that, and what I should plead for had I an opportunity here to-night, and that is that the schools should show to you that our children from first to last are educated to deal with great thoughts, great lines, great truths, great facts. Let us magnify greatness for a little while instead of littleness. If we can face our children toward that in literature which is great, if we can face our children toward that in nature which is great, if we can face our children toward that in history that is great, if we can turn them towards greatness we need have no anxiety as to the outcome along any line that our schools may pass. But you can never magnify the littleness, you can never magnify the minute, you can never magnify it so perfectly that you will ever make great men, and great women, out of such magnifying.

I came here to-day to say to you that I believe there is the dawning of a better life educationally. The highest life that we have had in the United States, educationally, up to the present time has been the emphirical life, namely, the learning from experience, learning from the exceptional, and we have been going from one end of the country to the other. If anybody anywhere had done a little bit of a thing somewhere that looked pretty, then everybody else did it, and it was the only thing to do while that thought lasted. Then we went back from that side to the other, and we have carried that to such an extreme that to-day we are glad to learn that we have gone clear around the circle, and we are beginning to learn the things over again. We are beginning to do the things that we thought were wonderful ten years ago, and we have started some teachers thinking. They are now wonderfully new. But we have gone beyond that to-day, and I believe we are looking for the first time for scientific foundations. I believe we are to have an education something that is worthy the name of psychology in its application. I believe we are to have something that will deal with the child in his life, the child in his outreach, in the perfection of his nature. I believe we should have the kindergarten spirit all along the line. I believe we should 15

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have specializing by specialists that will mean something. I believe we are going to learn how to put in even the principles of psychology such as our friend here (Dr. McLellan) has brought us to the States out of your country. And I want to say to you that we in the States have learned many things from you here, and we believe to-day that we are going to have the benefit of a principle of psychology that shall magnify it—a psychology that shall be firm, that shall make the past the foundation of the future. I believe that we are going to have placed beneath every subject a psychology that shall deal with fundamentals, a psychology that shall not dissipate in thin air, but shall go down to the very foundations of law, that shall make us realize the possibilities that are ours.

I will make a speech if I do not look out. "Go on." I do not like to drift into a speech. I threw away the speech I was going to make, and I have been drifting on.

Now, turning from all this, I would like to say three things as briefly as possible regarding teachers and their work.

First, the sole element in a teacher. I believe the day has come when we must realize that a teacher ought to stand before her class with some power peculiarly her own. A teacher ought to develop a power that she has peculiarly her own. I can say here that "he" has peculiarly his own, because you have so many men up here. But down with us we have so few men and so many women that I always say "she" when I am talking to teachers. Up here you have got the thing turned round so that I can say "he."

We had an experience in Pennsylvania last year when a man, a Professor in one of the Normal Schools, had spoken, and he stepped down from the platform amid the plaudits of the crowd and he said to a woman in the audience, "You do not remember me." "No, I do not remember you." "Well," he said, "I was so and so." "What," she said, "you little so and so?" "Yes, so and so." "And you went to school to me?" "Yes, ma'am." "And I have had a part in making you what you are ?" "Yes, ma'am." "Well, now," she said, with a true pedagogical instinct, "I want you to tell me, Henry, just what it was in my teaching that did most for you? Don't you remember anything ?" "Oh, yes," he said, "I do remember something." "Well, tell me what you remember." He replied, "That you made us go catercorner around the flower gardens, and would not let us go across." "What," she said, "is that all you remember?" "Yes, that is all I remember from you." And do you know there is many and many a teacher of whom, if they should be honestly told by their children

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what they remembered it would be some little insignificant unaccountable thing that had been impressed upon them by dint of much discipline.

I would say to you, teacher, have some power that is your ownmagnify some power. Stand before your school endowed with a power to do something in your own way, and do it well. I want to tell a little incident that illustrates this better than any other that comes to my recollection. Mr. Howland of blessed memory in the city of Chicago, was the most remarkable Superintendent I ever knew in my life. He was always doing the most unexpected thing. One day before a week's vacation in April he went into one of the large schools of 450 boys built in one of the worst sections of the city, and the principal said, "Mr. Howland, won't you read something to my boys?" He always had something in his pocket. He had Evangeline; 450 boys assembled in the hall, and Mr. Howland read Evangeline. When he was through the teacher said, "I want each of you after vacation to bring to me something that you read, something about this reading. I chanced to be there afterwards, and saw the pile of papers upon the principal's desk, and had the privilege of looking through them. I was so much interested in one that I wanted to see the boy that wrote it, and I went down and saw a little Italian fellow, apparently figuring for a hoodlum. One of those boys that in clothing and general appearance showed that he was from one of the worst homes in the city. This is what that little Italian boy had written: " I supposed so big a man would read very loud, but he did not, that Iwould not hear anything. Heard everything. Teacher says so much about emphasis that I can't see how he did it. Did not do it at all, but oh my, didn't he make pictures stand out though. I remember everything he read till I die." Then he left two lines. He did not know how to say what he wanted, and then he added, "The way that man read made me think of God." Think of a man who could take Evangeline and read it to 450 boys from such a quarter of Chicago. I would give more for that personality, I would give more for that power to read Evangeline to those boys, than of teaching them any subject on the face of the globe in the technicality of detail.

Secondly, I want to say to you teachers, be the leader. Keep your school in your own hand without letting anybody know you have it there. Be a leader that is ready for an emergency. I was at a large educational gathering in Pennsylvania last November where 1,400 people were assembled. It was a college town, and the college boys were out of patience with the leader of the educational

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assembly, and they were going to make trouble. Twenty-five of them were massed over there. The hall was deep and narrow. Away back on the other side in the gallery were these twenty-five boys massed. I had spoken. I was at the other end of the programme, and I had gotten through safely, very much to my joy. I never felt easier in my life than when I sat down and had not been broken up. The man who followed me was a wonderfully bright man, a wonderfully effectual man. I do not know a man that could take a situation of that kind better than he could. He stood up and introduced his sentence. He was not through the first sentence when from every side the college boys struck up "Glory Hallelujah." Well, you can imagine. On the platform was E. O. Excell. If you ever knew that man you know what he is. The first note had not started out before Excell was on his feet and said, "Let us all join," and such a singing I never heard in my life. When they were through he said, "There, that will do, boys," and do it did. That audience was in his hands, and the speaker went on and nobody listened better than the fifty college boys in the gallery.

I say that in this day of training—and we are not getting too much training—we can never get away from the necessity of leadership, of responsibility of leadership, for this personality we must have, and must have ever.

One other thought and I am done. It is that of the accompanist. I want the teacher to be an accompanist, as well as soloist and leader. I do not know but all the accompanists have gone home. I expect they have. They usually do drop out you know when the performance gets fairly under way. I wish we had one or two of them as they would appreciate it better than anybody else. You know the accompanist has to carry the soloist with her so as to let the soloist go up and off on any vagaries that he pleases, and then come down when he gets ready, and be there to receive him. You understand that, and then you know a soloist has another trick peculiarly his own. It just dawns upon him that he would like to sing that in another key and wants to transpose while he sings-you know how it is—and it is always in a difficult thing that he wishes her to transpose, and she has to do it. Now the accompanist never gets any credit for anything, but gets blamed for everything always. The accompanist has to keep perfectly quiet and perfectly still. I once heard an accompanist in a large audience when the soloist went off and did not know just where he was going to alight. When he was coming down the accompanist turned and said, "What are

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you going to do next?" Well, it is needless to say that that man never played as accompanist in that city afterwards. That soloist was welcomed back there again, but the accompanist never. He had spoken right out in meeting. Now the teacher is the accompanist of the child, and must so understand very largely her position. Suppose the teacher was not allowed to speak out in meeting, suppose the teacher was expected when a child goes off on a vagary to keep perfectly quiet, and be ready to receive the child when he comes back, suppose he was, and he ought to be. The teacher is the accompanist of that child, to buoy up with sympathy, and to transpose the rules and regulations when it is necessary to adapt them to the child. The rules of your schools are for the children in the schools, and the children are not for the rules. Now, let us have that understood distinctly, and let us carry it out so that we can sometimes appreciate that. Now, I would not have you allow the children to abuse this, but I would have you distinctly keep in mind that it is the best good of the child always.

I hope you will sometime have Miss Coffin here to speak to you. She is one of the most remarkable women I have ever known in school work. Last October, while I was in Detroit, I learned this incident that had occurred only a day or two before. Miss Coffin went into the school and tried to teach them numbers, and tried very earnestly, and said, "Do you all understand it?" They all understood it but one girl. She did not raise her hand. "Don't you understand it?" "No." Then she threw herself into it again, and gave it with much clearness. "Do you understand it now?" "No." Then for the third and last time she came to the charge. She drew fresh illustrations, new inspiration, to that girl alone. "Do you understand it now?" "No." Miss Coffin wearied turned around and let the thing go. As soon as the hour was through she stepped around and ran her arm around this girl and said, "Why did you not understand it? I tried to make it very clear." "Oh, I did not care anything about it." Then the child burst out crying and told her this story. "My mother died five weeks ago, and father brought my two little sisters and myself over here and put us in the poor house, and said that he would come for us again, and we have been waiting and he never came, so yesterday morning I took my little sisters by the hand and went out and tried to find our old home, and the woman sent a policeman after us, and took us and brought us home. Then she punished us, and said father was never coming for us any more, and we had to stay here, and I don't care whether I learn anything or not. But this is the best place I can come

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to anyway." Miss Coffin motioned to the teacher. The teacher came down, and she said, "Make this place a lovely place for this child. See to it that she is happy here. See to it that she has all comforts here," and that girl had no trouble in turning her thoughts to numbers or anything else in the loving hand of the teacher then. I say that I would rather be Miss Coffin that minute than to have been Miss Coffin when she was teaching numbers so brilliantly that every child understood it. Know this, be a soloist, be the leader, but above all be an accompanist of the children that God has placed in your care.

COLONEL ?

We all o lected toge assembly o the human us hope, ad organizatio the public t Schools, bee and the ma respect and instruments ters, of the indirectly a adequately be properly mention as is one of the existence, ar there are fev cised over us In illustratio tomed to di society of ot ally, and alm here then th that is exten custom whic every other by the nature

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COLONEL THE HON. JAMES BAKER, MINISTLR OF EDUCATION, BRITISH COLUMBIA.

We all owe a debt of gratitude to the Hon. Mr. Ross for having collected together, from all parts of this great Dominion, such an important assembly of teachers and others who are interested in the evolution of the human mind, in order that we may interchange our ideas, and, let us hope, advance our cause. We should hail with keen pleasure any organization which has for its effect the bringing prominently before the public that important section of society, the teachers of our Public Schools, because it is a class which, from the very nature of its calling and the magnitude of its responsibilities, should command our deepest respect and solicitude. The teachers of our Public Schools are the human instruments which mould the brains, and to a large extent the characters, of the children who are placed under their charge. They are indirectly arbiters of the national character, and it is, therefore, difficult adequately to measure the amount of honor and dignity which should be properly awarded to these architects of human nature. I may mention as chief of their responsibilities the force of example, which is one of the most subtle and far-reaching forces which shape our social existence, and we cannot attach too much importance to it; indeed, there are few of us who realize the extraordinary power which is exercised over us by the example of those by whom we may be surrounded. In illustration, I may mention the common case of a man who is accustomed to drink only at his meals, but who becomes thrown into the society of others who take their drinks at odd times, when he gradually, and almost imperceptibly to himself, drops into the same habithere then the force of example grows into a force of habit, and when that is extended to a number of individuals it becomes a force of custom which it is exceedingly difficult to change; and so it is with every other habit, and there is not one of us who is uninfluenced by the nature of his surroundings.

But if this is the case with the adult, how much more so with young children, whose brains are in a receptive state of growth, ready and eager to absorb impressions from surrounding objects?

Therefore it becomes the first duty of society so to order its educational system that it may be enabled to select the most honorable, the most able, and the most refined of its units as teachers of the young.

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Unfortunately we find in this country-and, indeed, in every other country-a small minority of the people which is averse to advanced free education. It maintains that the three R's are all which are required, and that the public money should not be expended in educating the people beyond that limited domain of knowledge. On the other hand the large majority of the people, at least in all civilized countries, fortunately holds a contrary opinion; it maintains that the public money cannot be better expended, nor with greater permanent profit to the nation, than by cultivating the intellect of the child to its highest possible pitch, in order that it may awaken to a perception of its inherent faculties, and by a healthy application of those derived powers it may contribute in each successive generation towards the lifting up of humanity to a higher and ever ascending standard. And in support of that supposition, it cannot be denied that the brain of every child is a wonderful mystery. It may contain within itself hidden treasures of incalculable value, which can only be revealed by careful education, and it therefore becomes the bounden duty of the nation to search for those treasures which are born into it, and which are calculated to contribute so materially to its prosperity and to its advancement.

There is in human nature an inherent thirst for knowledge, a thirst, however, which could not have been satisfied without the assistance of that great incubator of liberty, the printing press, which for over 400 years has kept plodding away year by year, and century by century, enlarging and spreading the area of knowledge. By it, and through it, all the tangled impediments in the road to the study of the sciences were swept away, and the laborious conclusions of the mental faculties of one student were handed on to hundreds of others, to be restudied, amplified, and multiplied, until there burst upon this nineteenth century all those wonderful discoveries in science which have revolutionized society by practically annihilating space, and placing the whole of civilized mankind within talking distance of each other.

As a consequence any wave of emotion which affects a community in one part of the world, is at once transmitted, with electrical rapidity, to every other community, however distant, and the result is a growing uniformity in thought, and also in action, which is gradually obliterating the boundaries and prejudices of nationality, so that every social problem now becomes actuated by what I may term a cosmic force.

A demand for free education was the natural corollary to this flood of human sentiment, the inherent thirst for knowledge had to be quenched, and now at the close of this nineteenth century, in all the

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civilized countries of the world, power is given to every child freely to fill up to the very brim the full measure of its intellectual capacity. Thus, after a lapse of over one thousand years, the dream, the hope, and the yearning of the first apostle of free education for the people, the good King Alfred, has become an accomplished fact, and I may also add that the Utopia of that great statesman, philosopher, philanthropist, and martyr of the sixteenth century - Sir Thomas More-is already more than half realized. Such are examples of the persistency of the evolutionary forces which are shaping mankind into a higher order of being.

But we must not lose sight of the fact that we are still only in the transition stage of this grand transformation scene between ignorance and knowledge. We have yet to be educated in the science of education, and we have to submit to the stern lessons of experience before we can hope to attain to anything approaching to perfection.

Society is gradually awakening to the fact that there are many grave defects in that system of general free education, which, it must be confessed, was somewhat hastily organized—it is beginning to recognize that to grant to young children the great boon of a free education. but at the same time to leave their crude receptive young brains unsweetened by any form of religious instruction, has failed signally in elevating their moral character, while the shameful sectarian discord which renders such a course expedient is sapping the very foundations of the doctrine of Christianity. Yes, and I have full warrant for this assertion from the very remarkable statistics emanating from the International Institute of Sociology, which was held in Paris last October, under the presidency of Sir John Lubbock. In discussing the effect of advanced free education upon crime, he stated that since the passage of the Act of 1870, for providing primary and secondary education in England, the number of children in English free schools has increased from 1,500,000 to 5,000,000, while the number of persons in prison has fallen from 12,000 to 5,000. The yearly average of persons sentenced to penal servitude for the worst crimes has decreased from 3,000 to 800; the number of juvenile offenders and delinquents has decreased from 14,000 to 5,000; and paupers have decreased by over fifty per cent. Let it be remembered that these remarkable results have been produced by an educational system which contains in its curriculum religious instruction of an unsectarian character. But now let us step across the English Channel into France, where the system of free education is quite as elaborate as that of England, but with this important exception; there is no religious instruction of any kind. What is the

consequence? We find that crime has increased hand in hand with education. The cry goes up that education is filling the prisons. If we turn to the United States, to the Antipodes, to Australia and New Zealand, the statistics tell the same same sad story, that crime increases directly as the increase in the number of godless schools. This offers food for very grave reflection.

But to descend from higher to lower things, I may and, with regard to education, that those unhealthy mental stimulants, frequent competitive examinations, have a tendency to engender conceit in place of sound learning, and they therefore become demoralizing both to the teachers and the taught. Then again, the multitude of subjects which are frequently forced upon the attention of the students are not calculated to strengthen their young and unformed brains; it is equivalent to cramming into the stomach more food than it can possibly digest.

We ought to ask ourselves this question: What is the object of advanced free education? Is it not to develop the latent talent of the child in order that it may become a citizen who, by example as well as by usefulness, may benefit the society to which either he or she may belong. The true end of knowledge should be to "provide a rich storehouse for the glory of the Creator and for the relief of man's estate." Therefore, the tendency of advanced free education should be to make the adult refined, that is, human in the best sense; and also practical, that is, capable of doing useful work. The instinct of labor must be cultivated; our intellectual food must be "converted into mental muscle, and not mental fat."

The two important objective points which I have enumerated, can only be reached by the student through force of example, derived principally from the conduct of the teacher, and also by a curriculum which comprises practical with theoretical instruction. The eye, the ear and the hand must unite, in order to form and fashion the brain.

Thanks, largely, to the ability and energy of the Hon Mr. Ross, the school system of Ontario approaches very nearly to perfection in this respect, and I am sanguine enough to hope that the people of British Columbia will recognize the great advantages which accrue from such a system, and that, although it must of necessity cost money, still it is the truest economy in the end, because the greatest results are obtained for the money which is expended.

The great reproach which is cast upon the educational system of the present age is that it tends to over-educate the children, and to render many of them unfit for the avocations into which they have been born, and that they fail to recognize the dignity of labor, whether it be that of the hadvanced free gether. But arises from to to the cultiv

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of the render born, it be that of the hand or of the head. If such were really to be the result of advanced free education, why, it would be better to abolish it altogether. But it is not so; experience has shown that such a result arises from the faults of the system, and not necessarily as a sequence to the cultivation of the mind.

You, in Ontario, with your admirably organized kindergartens, technical schools, and schools of practical science, have shown conclusively that properly organized advanced free education can turn out highly practical men and women. Indeed, it is being generally acknowledged all the world over that technical education tends to strengthen the brain, and gives to it greater power for understanding theory and adapting it to practice.

But no matter what curriculum may be devised, it must prove abortive unless it is administered by instructors who possess a special training and adaptability for the important task which is committed to their charge. Ontario has recognized the paramount importance of a special training for teachers, by the establishment of your admirable Normal Schools, which compare favorably with the best of similar establishments in other parts of the world; but it seems to me that a large portion of the training of a teacher should be devoted to a special study of the brain and nervous system, and I use the term brain in this case in the common acceptation of the term as indicating the seat of intelligence. Taking it in that sense, the teachers of our Public Schools, so soon as they step upon the very threshold of their labors, find themselves confronted with a whole congeries of mysteries-a multitude of brains; all of them in a state of growth; each of them differing from the other; all of them sensitive to the lightest touch; each of them capable of being moulded-like a piece of potter's clay-into either an attractive or a repulsive form; and all of them requiring the greatest skill and judgment in the marshalling of their varying eccentricities.

Truly, it is no light task, and it is one which ought to be approached with the greatest gravity and sense of responsibility. The brain is such a mystery that it is difficult to define when its powers commenced or when they will end. It is a part of the evolution of life; of that life which science has taught us is common to the animal and vegetable kingdom, and which has been reduced in its visible form to the protoplasm or first germ, out of which the multitude of living things has sprung and is springing, ever moving onwards towards some mysterious end which is beyond our ken. It has merely been revealed to us so far that this being which we call life, the change from inorganic into

organic matter, commences in every case with the protoplasm or first germ, and then spreads by innumerable channels away and away into higher and ever higher existences, until, with infinity of time, it shall touch the very hem of the garment of the Almighty.

With our limited knowledge, we are forced to confess that there are secret chambers in our brains, secret and unknown to those who surround us—yes, and secret and unknown even to ourselves, and they can only be unlocked and revealed by the key of temptation or of circumstance, whenever it may come; and there is not one of us who can foretell, with any degree of accuracy, what his or her conduct will be whenever that special temptation or circumstance shall arise. Therefore it becomes us to be very charitable in our judgments.

But the greater the mystery of the brain, the greater the necessity for the graduating trainers of it, the teachers of the young, to study its composition and to search for light and knowledge in order to be enabled to fashion it into its highest form.

There is an instinct in human nature that whispers to us of a higher existence. We talk of angels, and in doing so we picture an existence beyond ourselves. The nations worship intermediate dieties, such as Brahma, Buddha, Zoroaster, Confucius, Christ, and Mohammed, and in each and every case the ideal is something superior to anything which is attained by existing humanity.

This beautiful ideal-the spiritual co-efficient which actuates the mechanism of humanity-is the force which is evoluting mankind into a higher order of being, and religion, irrespective of sect, is its handmaid. But there is a counter-force in operation, namely, the gravitation of humanity towards its lower order of existence. There is a heaven, and there is a hell. Evolution beckons us towards the former; devolution drags us towards the latter; and between these two contending forces, there exists that mysterious power in human nature to which we give the name of "free-will." It is a force which it is exceedingly difficult to define, yet we are all of us conscious of its possession because it forms the line of demarcation between a lunatic and a man who is responsible for his own actions. The man who has no volition over his actions is termed a lunatic; but any degree of will power which a sane man may possess, must be exerted either to exalt or lower him in the scale of humanity, according as it is the resultant of the component forces which actuate him.

These component forces are not constant throughout his life, but they vary in direction and magnitude according to the impressions produced upon his brain by surrounding and accumulating circumstances. We may, supposing th parents, bein gorillas or ch alone until it an adult wou language, if associate gori inherited fac under instrumorality, and superior to its be fashioned reverbatory p

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t they duced We may, perhaps, be better able to appreciate the problem by supposing the case of an infant, born of highly intelligent and refined parents, being placed at its birth, if it were possible, in the society of gorillas or chimpanzees, to be suckled, reared, and brought up by them alone until it became adult. The antecedent probability is that such an adult would be bestial in its habits and manners, and also in its language, if it had any; but, mark you, not to the same degree as its associate gorillas or chimpanzees—and why not? On account of its inherited faculties. But if the same infant were placed at its birth under instructors, and in a society of the highest refinement, morality, and intelligence, it would, as an adult, be incomparably superior to its gorilla-reared simulacrum. In either case the brain would be fashioned by the impress of surrounding circumstances, and its reverbatory power would be proportioned accordingly.

Herein lies the grave responsibility which attaches to a teacher of the young, because it is in the power of an instructor, by virtue of his matured will force, to impress the young and immature brains committed to his charge in such a manner as will either exalt or lower their inherited faculties. In point of fact, the awful responsibility is cast upon the teacher of graduating the scale of humanity. Surely, then, it is incumbent on society to take special care that the teachers of our Public Schools become adepts in the diagnosis of brain power.

It appears to me that the first step towards obtaining such a knowledge should consist in the study of embryology of heredity, of anatomy and neurology, because it is impossible intelligently to diagnose brain power unless we understand something about the sources of its production. So soon as that knowledge is acquired, the second step should be for the graduating teachers to study, under specially trained experts, the methods of the application of such knowledge to diagnosis of brain power of young children.

The study of Embryology has advanced greatly in the last few decades, and it has clearly revealed to us the intimate connection which exists between man and all placental animals. Researches into heredity confirm this connection by detecting certain inherited habits and instincts which are common to man and the nearest approach to man in the lower order of animals, namely, the ape. The study of anatomy and neurology teach us how impressions upon the eye, the ear, and the skin are transmitted by the nervous system to the highly sensitive brain, where they are stored up according to its varying capacity and quality, in order that they may afterwards be reverberated by that mysterious power which we call memory. All these scientific studies have taught

us, by the process of induction and deduction, or, in other words, by the indentations upon and the reverberations from the brain, that intelligence is measurable by the capacity and peculiar convolutions of the brain.

For example, the brain of the lowest order of man is about twice the size of the brain of the highest order of ape. Yes, but we cannot take much comfort out of that, because we find that the difference in the size of the brains of the highest and lowest order of man is far greater than that which exists between the lowest order of man and the highest order of ape. Again, the span of intelligence between the highest and lowest order of ape is far greater than that which exists between man and the ape. For a long period it was supposed that certain peculiar portions of the brain, known under their scientific nomenclature as the posterior lobe, the posterior cornu, and the hippocampus minor, were peculiar to man and were not to be found in the ape; and that profound scientist, Professor Owen, under whose instruction, by-the-bye, I had the great honor of being placed, held to that opinion to his dying day. But, alas! even that comfort is now denied us, because the more exact researches of Professor Huxley and other scientific celebrities have proved beyond any shadow of doubt that these peculiar properties of the brain are to be found in the ape as well as in man. There are certain inherited habits and tendencies between man and the ape which are worthy of mention.

In studying the habits of gorillas and chimpanzees, it was observed that they make their beds at night in trees, with sticks and leaves, and that they are very particular about their nightcaps. I use the term nightcap in its literal and not in its spirituous sense. Well, they cover their bodies with leaves, and particularly their heads, and they sleep with the hand under the head, palm upwards. Now, it is a well known fact that children and also adult human beings have a strong tendency to place the hand under the head upon going to sleep, even though they may have soft feather pillows to rest it upon ; and, moreover, I can strongly recommend any of my hearers who may suffer from insomnia, to try placing the hand under the head, palm upwards, and in nine cases out of ten, they will go off comfortably to sleep, but whether they will dream of their gorilla ancestors, I am not prepared to predict. Then, again, the prehensile tendency in the hands of infants, and the peculiar love for climbing trees, which is common to boys and girls alike, all point to inherited tendencies from our simian ancestors.

There is a wild tribe of men called Veddahs in the island of Ceylon, who have no fixed habitations, and who make their beds at night in trees with s and chimpan some nature man, when t he became re keeping gam ages, when it in trees or ca

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trees with sticks and leaves, very much after the fashion of gorillas and chimpanzees. Then, again, the love of sport, which is so strong in some natures (I have it myself), is probably inherited from primitive man, when the supply of food was dependent upon the sportsman, and he became renowned in proportion to his success. Again, the taste for keeping game until it becomes high, probably dates back to primitive ages, when it was necessary to hang venison and other kinds of game in trees or caves for future use.

But if all these inherited habits and tendencies still cling to us after a lapse of countless ages of time, how much stronger and more varied must those tendencies be which we have inherited from our numerous and more recent ancestors, and how complicated the growing brain of a young child must be when it is pregnant with inherited tendencies utterly unsuited, maybe, for the circumstances into which that child has been born.

Hence the care and caution which are necessary in diagnosis of brain power, and brain tendencies, and the patience and perseverance which are required on the part of the teacher in order to be enabled to divert the growth of the brain into the most elevating channels.

To show how much may be accomplished by care and patience on the part of the teacher, I will give a case which came under my own notice. It was that of a boy at one of our great Public Schools in England, who, although a good boy in other respects, was so densely stupid that the masters could do nothing with him. A consultation was held, and it was determined to ask the boy's parents to remove him from the College. The house tutor went to inform him of the decision, and to his astonishment found the boy in the College library and museum absorbed in a deep work upon Natural History. Investigation proved that the greater part of the boy's play hours had been passed in the library and museum studying works on Natural History. The house tutor asked that the decision for the boy's removal might be rescinded, and that he might be allowed to take him in hand. He did so, and set him to work on Natural History and Science, and immediately the latent talent was evoked, the special inherited impress upon the brain at once responded to the call, and so far from its being necessary to remove that boy from the College, he became one of its most brilliant ornaments. Now, in this case, the boy's thoughts were so concentrated upon his one talent, that he became absent and oblivious to other impressions; but no sooner did his mind get free play upon its special channel than it at once relieved the repressing force upon his other faculties, and left them at liberty to expand. Had it not been for the

care and patience of his house tutor, the whole tenor of that boy's life might have been changed.

One of the greatest difficulties which meet the efforts of a teacher is diagnosis of the neurological symptoms of his pupils. The child is full of emotions, the immature buds of character, and any rough or inconsiderate treatment of such emotions may, in some cases, ruin a child's character for life. The nervous systems of some children, and also of adult human beings, are so extremely sensitive that they require to be treated with the greatest judgment and circumspection. In illustration of how sensitive some nervous systems may be to exterior vibrations, I will mention the case of a young lady of my acquaintance who was an accomplished musician. She married a man who had the misfortune to be stone deaf. Yet, strange to say, he could appreciate her music, and always knew when she was playing in the same room, even when he had his back turned towards her. In this case the waves of sound must have vibrated a highly sensitive nervous system and set it in motion.

We ourselves experience something similar in the case of sad or lively music. Why do we call it sad or lively? On account of the vibrations produced upon our nervous, system by the differing waves of sound.

There are attractions and repulsions in human nature which we all of us experience, but find it difficult to account for them, but there is no doubt that they vary in a large degree according to the sensitiveness of the nervous system of the people concerned. Beauty of face and beauty of form act upon the eye, and thence by the nervous system to the brain; but the same face or form may affect different people in very varying degrees.

There is a force we call sympathy, which is highly attractive when it meets a similar indent upon another brain. Children and dogs are quick in discerning this force, and in responding to it. Instances might be multiplied by the thousand to prove how extremely sensitive the brain is to impressions from surrounding circumstances, and how it may be exalted or lowered according to the nature of the impressing objects.

But is not this the best possible argument we could have in favor of advanced free education for the people ?

Because the higher the education of each unit of society, the greater must be the elevating force of surrounding circumstances, there is a reflex action between brain and brain.

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possesinit of society is indented by a force which is opposed to the gravitation of humanity towards its lower order of existence, then the reverberatory power of the brains of the whole of society must tend to raise humanity up the scale of evolution, and *vice versâ*. Therefore, the greater number of brains which are properly indented the greater must be the elevating force of surrounding circumstances, and the higher humanity must rise in the scale of evolution.

But it is education, properly organized, which indents the brain on the upward scale, hence the paramount importance of a general education of the highest order.

Exception may possibly be taken to a portion of my argument on the plea that it tends to reduce human thought and human action down to a mere scientific formula, and that it does not leave room for the ethics of religion with all their beautiful emotions and holy aspirations.

But I think that a little consideration should dispel such an erroneous conclusion, because, although the revelations of science have undoubtedly taught us that man is only a function in a long scale of evolution, a mere speck on the boundless expanse of creation, still the very fact of his being a function in evolution must assure him that he has had a past, that he has a present, and that he will have a future.

He recognizes, by virtue of his undoubted inherited tendencies, his intimate connection with the past; he experiences a power of free will for his guidance under the circumstances of the present; and he should therefore have unbounded faith in the continuity of his existence in the future. To my mind there could not be a more beautiful manifestation of the analogy between science and religion than our own pure Christian faith.

The man Christ appears among men, is seen by them, speaks to them, reveals to them in His own person a higher aspect of humanity, a Godhead, and then disappears along the path of evolution, beckoning to His fellowmen to follow Him.

God made man in His own image. Is not, then, the doctrine of the Trinity the verisimilitude of the doctrine of evolution? The Father is God, the Son is God, and the Holy Ghost is God, and yet there are not three Gods, but one God.

So, also, there is the man God of the future, the man of the present, and the man of the past, and yet there are not three men, but one man, who is ever ascending the path of evolution.

But I must not detain you any longer. I have endeavored, I fear but imperfectly, to emphasize the grave responsibility which attaches

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to a teacher of the young; to point out that the brain of every child which is committed to the charge of a teacher, is pregnant with inherited tendencies, coupled with a power of free will which may be directed, by a stronger and more matured will force, towards either a higher or lower standard of humanity, according to the degeee of judgment which is observed in diagnosis of brain power; that the higher the education of each unit of society, the greater must be the elevating force of surrounding circumstances; and that it therefore becomes the bounden duty of society to endeavor to raise each of its units to the highest possible level.

Such being the case, it is an obligatory part of human effort to give a due portion of its labor in the form of taxation in order to provide the most efficient organization for the education of the people. Turning, then, to those who would mete out to the rising generation but a mere pittance of education in the form of the three R's; who, conscious of their own knowledge, would selfishly grudge a similar measure to their poorer brethren; who would cast the welfare of our poorer children upon the wayward element of chance; who maintain that we should not sow now, because, forsooth, we cannot reap now. To such as those I would say, in the words of one of America's deepest thinkers:—

> Rich is the harvest from the fields Which bounteous nature kindly yields, But fairer growths enrich the soil Ploughed deep with thought's unwearied toil, In Learning's broad domain.

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J. M. HARPER, M.A., PH.D., F.E.I.S., QUEBEC.

The spirit of progress is born of man's inherited tendency to find fault. It ought not to be is father to the fiat let it be otherwise. All fault-finders, however, are not of the faith that longs for improvement. The co-ordination of all complaining is no doubt a great social force; but there is in it no germ of progress until the desire for bettering things becomes associated with it. The spirit of progress is a spirit of rectification. The man who never reaches beyond the mere raising of an objection is as much a fool for his pains as the man who is ever crying for a change and calling it progress. The true pioneer is made of better stuff. He neither defies criticism nor shuns it, but is ever ready to make of his mistakes the rungs that lead to the higher successes.

And so has it been with any age of progress. It is only when such an age has dared to own up to its mistakes, has run from the dogmatism that would crucify criticism, has come to terms with itself, that it has left its mark for good on the centuries. And if the spirit of the nineteenth century be the most progressive of all ages, as it is ever boasting itself to be, and has about it, more than any of its predecessors has had, this bravery of self-examination and rectification, the educationist, like the statesmen, the financier, the scientist and the engineer of our latter day-progress, may surely find warrant for pausing in the strides he has made, to examine whether what is being done to make the present and the coming generation better, is the right way of going about it.

And here in presence of this intelligent assembly, an assembly of Canadians drawn from all parts of our fair Dominion, it is surely safe enough to ask if we are as one in this matter. A great work has been marked out for this Dominion Association of ours to accomplish, the maturing of a professional sympathy, the development of a common pedagogic that is expected to end in something even more tangible than a common pedagogic. Nor is this "something more tangible" far to seek, in view of what has been called the seeming failure of the political forces of 1867 to mature our provincial sympathies into the true national plebiscite we are ever longing for. For if it be proper to ask why the Nova Scotian trader is as much of a Nova Scotian as he was previous to Confederation, may we not also ask why a teacher of

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the Canadian Maritime Provinces east or west has as weak a professional claim in the provinces of the interior of Canada as a Russian would have in Prussia or an Irishman in France. Yes, we may surely pause at the threshold of our search for pedagogic fallacies, to put the question in all seriousness, as I put it at our last meeting of this Association. "Why am I not directly eligible to take charge of a school in Ontario?" asks the certificated, Normal School trained teacher of New Brunswick, and the answer comes perhaps from our Ontario brethren here assembled in a majority, "For the same reason that we are not directly eligible for appointment in New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, or Quebec." But why should this be so? Is it professional prejudice or pedagogic pride that bars the way to reciprocity? Is it lack of faith in one another? Is it lack of faith in ourselves? There is a professional fallacy lurking somewhere as the cause of such a state of affairs; for while there possibly may be the shadow of a doubt about the examined of the so-called poor benighted province from which I hail, no one will surely dare say that an Ontario teacher (one who has passed his examinations, professional and literary), can for a moment be thought incapable of taking charge of any school in any of our provinces. If any of you, in an unwise impulse, would for a moment venture to think otherwise, you should only meet some of the Ontarians who "come over to help us" at times, and you would soon be convinced that they are not only able to take charge of the worst as well as the best of our schools, but of our Principals, Inspectors and Superintendents besides. Of course in saying this I am merely joking about Ontario teachers in presence of so many Ontario teachers-whom I would not care to offend-and about us poor benighted Quebecers as well, remember, seeing I have to return home again. But what of the fallacy? No, not the fallacy under which the Ontario teacher labors when he comes to Quebec, but the fallacy that keeps us apart as teachers within one nationality. It is reassuring to learn that this Association, seeking a practical outlet for its counsels, has already taken steps to bring about an assimilation of our interests in this respect. What the final issue may be of such a movement, judiciously continued, is perhaps by some not easy to forsee. But what it ought to realize for our Dominion, tending seemingly nationwards, is a theme the most of us would not be loathe to enter upon. The burdens laid upon the school and the schoolmaster are perhaps already grievous enough to be borne, and it is urged against the many educational reformers of the present time, that the exceptions they, in their turn, urge against our systems of public instruction and courses of study,

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seem to focus on some additional subject or pet routine they are anxious to have introduced. But the reforms that would arise were the experienced teachers of one province to have ready acceptance in any of the provinces, would reduce the burdens of the school if there is anything beneficial in the process of assimilation. The faddist from New Brunswick would have the conceit taken out of his fads when he came to Ontario, while the Ontario man, when he came to Quebec, would have to take his hands out of his pockets out of sheer respect if not from industry. In fact there would be little or no room for the faddist whose only faith in the novelty he crows and croons over, is in the declaration that it has been introduced elsewhere. The pedagogic necessities would have to be respected as paramount in every discussion over school reform. The true function of the school would less frequently be lost sight of in the craving for change. Assimilation would lead to consolidation, and consolidation would help the national tendencies of our populations. In a word, the schools and the schoolmasters of our Dominion, without the prospect of having imposed on them additional burdens, would become agencies in developing that community of thought and national feeling which has the minimum of a provincial penchant about it. And if the republic of the St. Lawrence is something which a remote posterity only may see, may it not be for some of us to hail the organization of a Dominion Bureau of Education which, while it disturbs no provincial constitutional rights, may foster the pedagcgic principles on which every system of public instruction ought to rest.

In my desire to emphasize the chief of our modern pedagogic fallacies, for I am afraid I shall only have time to emphasize one of them, I shall have to handle the fallacy of the non-professional first. In taking into consideration the introduction of any school reform, we must never lose sight of what can legitimately be expected from school-work. As I have already said, the proper function of the school and its padegogic necessities must never be overlooked. The story of the scourging in the temple was a year or two ago repeated in Chicago, when, if you remember, the great educational reform of the moment was the reform, or rather the dismissal, of the so-called educational reformers, who for years had flourished and fattened barnacle-like by encumbering the school system of that city with their specialisms; and was there a man of us who did not rejoice at the clean sweep that was made of the fad-worshippers? The only regret is that the thong of the scourge was not long enough to reach down cur way here, into some of the city corners of our Dominion, and leave its mark on the what I have called the fallacy of the non-professional.

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Such a fallacy has its root in the cry of the self-made man, that in providing an education for all, we are overdoing it. The ideal of our education is pitched too high. We are draining the ambitions of our young men away from the farm and the workshop. Manual labor has become incompatible with dignity of living and respectability. Even our public men are full of the story. A gentleman lately honored by the Queen, a prospective provincial premier, a respectable wholesale merchant, a reputable bridge contractor, and a city alderman, have all dinned the cry into my ear lately. You will hear it repeated in every corner of the world where there is any contest going on between capital and labor. Our newspapers are full of it. Indeed, so intimately does it whisper itself into the confidence of even ourselves, that we cannot refrain from smiling when the ideal of an educated man is placed before us. Can it be possible, then, that by educating all, we are doing an injury to any? Are there in this world souls and souls-some to be developed to the utmost tension of their activities, others to be compassed in their powers for the good of society? Let us see. Let us follow the argument wherever the argument will take us.

The division of labor of modern times, has changed the character of labor. The experience of the man who used to make a watch by hand, is very different from the experience of the person who superintends the machine that cuts out one of the pinions of a Waltham or Waterbury. The craftsman of old found more in his craft than his bread and butter. There was an education-a development of mind as well as of body in his labor. But our great factories and the minute sub-divisions of labor, have changed this. The laborers, who find in manual labor a mere routine, comprise in our times the bulk of our populations. The artisan of to-day need have little of the artist about him in order to earn his bread and butter. The skill of what we still, by courtesy, call skilled labor, is in the machine he handles. Thus, every man, we may say, has his bread and butter value, in which his education is altogether discounted. But the man who is only worth his bread and butter, has never been much of an improvement on the beast of the field. Hodge may vote, but is he fit to vote if he be only worth his bread and butter? Hodge may have served his master faithfully, but so did his master's horse. To be worthy of his hire was Hodge and Sambo's highest virtue; but has not God, the first of democrats, declared that man is worth more than his hire? Ay, a man has surely two lives to look after in this world-the life of toil and bread winning; and the life which makes life worth living-the life of the laborer, and the life of the man, the life

that is wo world just to live, is c in the den bread and then in th education.

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that is worth its hire, and the life that knows no hire; ay, and the world just awaking to the revelation that *all* men have these two lives to live, is convinced that every man must have his chance to live them in the democracy that makes a man the master of himself after his bread and butter has been secured. If this be the true democracy, then in the true democracy we may find the definition of the true education.

The purpose of a school education, has, therefore, little or nothing to do with the bread-and-butter business of life. The purpose of a school or even college education is not to enable people to get on in the world, but rather to make it a little less important than it is at present whether they get on or not, to mitigate in fact, as has been forcibly said, the torments of the hell of non-success. The purpose of school work is neither to train men to lay up money nor to neglect the making of it, neither to make of them millionaires nor to encourage them to become paupers. Education has to do with the life of the true democracy, with the higher life of man; and when a nation comes to be educated in this sense, there will be found in it, perhaps not less of a desire to amass wealth as a means towards power or pleasure, but certainly less of an inclination to make the possession of wealth a measure of respectability. In a word the true education has for its purpose the making of the laborer as much of a man as the lord, as much of a citizen, as highly respected as the wealthiest of the land, a being who, after his day's work is over, may sit down under the vine and fig tree of our best literature, and make a companion of our Shakespeares, our Miltons and our Bacons. If he happens to turn away for the moment from any particular bread-and-butter occupation to follow another (to the disgust of some of our non-professional educationists) it is only for the moment; for as soon as the trade balance of supply and demand makes his first occupation richer in bread and butter than his second, we can safely depend upon his bread-and-butter instincts to lead him back to the richer pastures.

Having found the purpose and intention of education in the outside world, we may safely examine what it is in the school-room, in order to find out what it ought to be. The critic in search of a pedagogic fallacy cannot but marvel at the remarkable advance that has been made in this century of ours, so famed for the fickleness of its standards, in the materializing of educational principles and training methods. Indeed so rapid has been the pace of modernizing everything educational, that it now seems difficult to say anything new about education, or to find an occasion emphatic enough to enunciate it. Everywhere

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results bear witness to the achievements of the common school; and yet at the moment when the unrest of our western life out in America here has been forced to pause in face of the slower pace of things maturing (contrasting the oft-recurring changes of earlier times with the more sedate movements of settled life), the unreflecting have come to complain of the lingering of the times, formulating charges against our systems of school education, as against nearly every other social movement, as much for what has been done as for what might have been done.

"The ordinary product of our schools, the graduate of fourteen or fifteen is perhaps good enough in his way," says the modern Philistine who has the corner of his eye on our schools. "He has learned quite a number of things, it is true, and has passed his examination fairly well. But have you not been negligent about some of the studies? Would he not have learned more had he learned less? Are you sure you have not been overdoing the thing with him? Is there no overpressure of work in your course of study? Are you sure you did not leave out a necessary subject or two, book-keeping, for instance, or some such practical study?"

And when we read of the Adamses, and Elliots, and Rices, and Parkers, running riot in their denunciations against the school methods across the line, we comfort ourselves, perhaps, that we have no such distinguished Philistines amongst us. Of course, we have the practical man making his perennial raid upon us, asking us whether the average teacher knows what he is about anyhow.

"We want more of the practical in our schools," he is perpetually saying aloud, too loud sometimes. "Your graduate, as you call him, may be all very fine, but what's the good of him? You teach our children things they will never have any use for in after life. Should you not teach them agriculture, manual training, sloyd, political and patriotic economy?"

"And sewing, and cooking, and type-writing, and carpentry, and iron work, and moulding, and tailoring, and shoemaking, and typesetting?"

"Well, no, I wouldn't go that far," says the practical man in a hurry. "We want the practical in our schools, but there must be a limit."

"And how are you going to define the limit?" asks pedagogic necessity.

Ah! there's the rub! Just bethink you for a moment! Is there any first principle at hand to guide you in defining the limit? Has the farmer's apprentice any place in our school, if the tinsmith or shoemaker has not? "Yes," say of our peop ture."

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here Has hoe"Yes," says the practical man, "undoubtedly he has, for the majority of our people are farmers, and our boys ought to be taught agriculture."

The practical man, however, does not live for the moment in St. Roch, Quebec, where the majority of the people are shoemakers, nor in Hochelaga, where a large proportion are in the cotton spinning way nor up the Ottawa, where there are so many lumbermen.

In fact there is something aslant in the predilections of such critics of our school system, from the man who would have religion taught in our schools, although it is a something that cannot be taught, to the man who seems to think that God has sent the most of our children into the world unable to learn anything of themselves. The fallacy of their position began when they ran away from the first query-principle of all such investigation—what is the legitimate function of the common school, what burdens can it legitimately be called upon to bear ?

Impeach anything about a school system, you like, is the answer of the true educational practitioner; but "first set a child in our midst if you would have us learn from it the true pedagogic, if you would have us follow your argument wherever it leads." Yes, out of the mouths of babes and sucklings, must we schoolmasters learn the principles of our calling.

I am not here going to run away into a disquisition on the threefold nature of the child. Enough and to spare has been written upon this subject, and possibly in our modern enterprise of school training, we have wandered too far from the simplicity of the pedagogic of the school-masters of ancient Greece. That pedagogic recognized in the child, the distinction as well as the close relationship between mind and body, and in order to give the ego or self of a youth easy control of his body and his mind, there was an exacting daily school drill to produce the symmetry of the one and the harmony of the other. Indeed, I believe that the Greeks would have appreciated a fuller meaning, than we usually do, from the words "What shall it profit a man if he gain the whole world and lose himself;" for they should have quoted it his *self*, while we would probably find fault with his grammar in our theological mixing and muddling of man's affairs here and hereafter.

"What is man ?" asks the old mother catechism of the Greeks. "Man is a being of three elemental parts, body, mind, and soul or self."

"What is self ?"

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"The elemental part in charge of the other two."

"How are these parts to be developed to their fullest?"

" By daily drill."

" Why should we drill our bodies ?"

"To produce what is called symmetry of physique."

" How may we drill our minds ?"

"By music and the study of poetry."

"Why should we drill our minds?"

"To produce what is called harmony of soul."

"What is the object of producing symmetry of body and harmony of soul ?"

"In order that we, the self, may the more easily take charge of the body and the mind."

And may we, of these times, not learn from such a catechism that the object of our school pedagogic is to train a child to take charge of himself.

What, then, is applied pedagogics doing for us, in this direction ? The theory is sound, but are we following the argument? The pedagogic necessities are plain enough, but what about the practical paideutics. How many of our schools have a daily physical drill to promote symmetry of body? All of them. How many of them give regular lessons in physiology and hygiene? All of them. How many provide a special training for the eye? Well, the study of form has been introduced into many of them, besides there is penmanship and drawing for the training of the hand and eye. But what is being done for the other hand, the hearing, and the sense of smell? Nothing. In how many of our schools is there a daily special training for the voice? Is there singing and elocutionary effects in all of them? What supervision is there of the playground? These are all queries that have been asked a hundred times, and are being asked still by our inspectors, and the answers to them are only yet fairly satisfactory. Such physical drills as the above cannot hinder school work. In themselves they form school work, legitimate school work, and thus help in the happy co-ordination or harmony of all school work, in which the physical drill that is had for the mere sake of having it has no place. In many of the latest efforts to add to the varieties of physical drill for school purposes there lurks a fallacy, the fallacy on which the manual-training notion and kindred fads as school attachments have been developed, and which so lamentably came to grief in Chicago lately as elsewhere. But the fallacy is not of universal deception, nor so difficult to detect as that which still works havoe in the field of mental drill in school.

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What is this fallacy? The fallacy of studying any school subject for the sake of studying it, or even for the sake of merely knowing it.

What is the test, may I ask, which every intelligently educated person applies to his neighbour in order to find out whether he be educated or not. Does he subject him to an oral examination to find out what he knows of Geography, History, Arithmetic, Book-keeping, Physiology, Physics, Botany, Chemistry, Latin, Greek, French, or of Mathematics? It would be an impertinence to ask him any question he might possibly not be able to answer in any of these subjects, however cunningly devised our process of enquiry might be. No, the simplest of all examinations is, "Does he speak and write his own language correctly?" That is all. And while this may not be the full test of scholarship, as it certainly is not, it is certainly a legitimate preliminary test to be applied to school work. Can the boys and girls, whom we send from school, communicate their thoughts to others in good idiomatic English ? Can they, teachers ? Are we doing our best to bring about the results that will stand this test? Are we practising our pupils every day in the art of speaking and writing correctly? Or are we getting them to commit to memory so many geographical items, so many historical memoranda, so many arithmetical secrets, so many scientific wonderments, so many language inflections for the sake of being able to say that they know them? I once climbed a very steep hill which had no view from the top, merely for the sake of saying when I arrived home that I had been at the top of it. But I never did it again. And surely we, as sensible teachers, are not teaching Geography, History, Arithmetic, Geometry, Latin and Greek, merely that our pupils may show at an examination that they have a smattering of these things (for we all know that even with our most intellectual pupils we can only give them a smattering of anything at the best).

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No, we teach these things in order that the mental activities of our pupils may be rendered more active. Surely that is the object. The examination is a secondary matter. The mental drill is everything. The little a pupil knows when he leaves school is very little indeed, and unless we train him to make use of that little as he would make use of his wider after-experience, this school training of his is a failure.

Now, in our search for the true mental drill, may we not ask which is the more important of the two—the process of acquiring knowledge or the process of communicating what knowledge we have to others. Which is likely to train a child to think correctly the more readily, seeing the whole object of mental drill is to train the mind to think correctly under the guidance of the ego? Which comes first in the

child, the thinking correctly or the speaking correctly? In a word, the whole matter of mental drill in school seems to be in a nutshell: If we wish our pupils to think correctly we must train them to speak correctly and write correctly. Thought is necessary for any kind of speech, but correct speaking is a direct process towards correct thinking, and it is a more tangible process for the teacher to deal with than the process of acquiring knowledge. How then would it do to say that we teach our pupils Geography, History, Arithmetic, Botany, and Chemistry, in order that they may have some thought material out of which to make English sentences? How then would it do to say that daily practice in the making of sentences is the most direct means towards attaining the end of a true mental drill?

If then we wish our pupils to think correctly, we must train them to speak and write correctly: a something that can only be done by daily practice in the making of sound English sentences.

That art of questioning of ours, of which we are sometimes so proud, you now know, is all a delusion and a snare, the grossest of all pedagogic fallacies. It is the tipping of the whip that eventually encourages the lazy horse to be indifferent as to his gait. It is the art of suggestion that kills out self-reliance. It is the art that makes of the pupil a machine for producing broken English. What, have you no faith in the reductio ad absurdum? No, very little, for in most cases it runs to seed in a sarcasm. The only man that ever could make legitimate use of the reductio ad absurdum was not Socrates but Euclid, and the most of us had better leave it alone as a thought awakener. In a word, seventy-five per cent. of the questioning in our schools is an evil. It has been the indirect breeder of bad English. by being the direct breeder of broken English. "Who was Moses? Where was he born? Did he always live there? Why did he live elsewhere? Who was his father? Who was his mother? Had he a sister? What did she do? Had she a brother? What did he do? Who was his father-in-law? What did he do? Had he a motherin-law?"

Now, why in the name of all that is sensible, should we, as teachers, spend our energy, so needful for other schoolwork, in such triffing as this, in what is worse than triffing—in touching up the steed that would go much more steadily were it left to itself—in breeding pernicious habits in the pupil of mind and body. The practice is surely a modern pedagogic fallacy; and I think we have discovered in it perhaps the greatest of them all, unless the greater be that the only thing a child need know of itself, is the body, its organs and their functions. This

instruction we hand. But do We are making brain is every one need not think of a gir material of w forenoon witho have ever been organs and fur man to take ch an organism he but by "vain re and how it can in its action to the one from th a new subject youngsters !" Y youngsters, you needed, if you l ought ever to h exposed.

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instruction we impart with the text-book of Physiology and Hygiene in hand. But do you know what we are doing through such instruction ? We are making materialists of every boy and girl in the country. The brain is everything; the mind a mere speculation, a something that one need not bother about; a subject that the teacher ignores. Just think of a girl wearing a dress for three years and not knowing the material of which it was made; or a boy possessing a watch for a forenoon without looking into it. And yet how few of our children have ever been told in school that their minds like their bodies have organs and functions. Education is the process of training a young man to take charge of himself. But how is he going to take charge of an organism he knows nothing about ? How is he going to memorize but by "vain repetition," if he does not know what his imagination is and how it can assist the memory? How is he to train his judgment in its action to steer clear of feeling or passion, if he does not know the one from the other ? " Hallo !" shouts the routine dominie scenting a new subject and a new text-book in the air, "Psychology for the youngsters!" Yes, sir, and if you are not able to teach Psychology to the youngsters, you are not fit for your place. There is no new text-book needed, if you know your business, just as no text-book on Physiology ought ever to have entered our schools. Another pedagogic fallacy exposed.

And yet another, and I am done for the present. Why is the cold shoulder presented so often to the school library? Why has there been less grand hurrahing over it as a school means to the highest end, than over the manual training or the kindergarten notion. Thought is necessary for any kind of speech, and still more necessary for correct speech written or spoken. Thought requires knowledge, the maximum of knowledge comes from the right way of acquiring it; comes from the most improved methods of instruction. To think correctly can be acquired by speaking and writing correctly, but while the boy is to be trained to speak correctly, he must also be trained to read books correctly. The educated man speaks and writes correctly, but he has also learned how to read correctly. Where? In school? Ay, ought not the necessity of having something to speak about press upon him there. "All that any school can do for us," says Carlyle, "is still but what the first school began doing-teach us to read. We learn to read in various languages, in various sciences, we learn the alphabet and letters of all manner of books. But the place where we get knowledge is the books themselves. The true school of these days is a collection of books." And who will say that the ex-schoolmaster of Craigenputtock had

not discovered one of the most important functions of the school amidst the hum and bustling of the utilitarian, of the penny wise and pound foolish fallacies of the non-professionals? If a pupil gets to the end of his school course without learning how to use a library, his education can hardly be said to have begun. He is really not able to take charge of himself. If he can speak correctly and write correctly his language remains as thin of thought as the sentences with which we so often elucidate the principles of grammar such as "birds fly, the cow which is in the field eats grass, or the cat saw a rat, but the rat ran away," or our ordinary dissertations on the weather as we meet on the street car or at a five o'clock tea. Whereas, if he has been trained in school to collect information-information that is worth maturing into knowledge-to collect, assimilate and reproduce, to produce thoughts in sentence form and collect thought material, he has come to understand what he must do in this world if he would make himself a factor in its affairs. In a word the library is always a leading to the highest department and ought to run parallel with every department in the school. A man to be a man must be able to read, a skilled collector of thought material. Let us then make of the pedagogic fallacy that libraries may or may not be necessary a rallying point. We are not by any means all agreed that our schools should have blacksmith, wood-work, soldiering or ploughing attachments to them. Indeed, the most of us are convinced that these appendages are not pediments but impediments to the true work of the school. In the light of the argument that must be followed wherever it leads us, even if it leads us to the exploding of pet schemes and lulling routines, even if it leads to seeming professional death itself, let us join hands in maintaining the true education, whether it be called an old education or a new, waging war against grammar-grubbing of the scholiastic-pedagogue, juggling with signs or symbols in Arithmetic or Algebra, the flunkeyism of Book-keeping expectations, the dilettantism of a recurring Latin or Greek pronunciation, the parrotlike memorizing that mocks the soul, the reform that runs after a random pedagogic, and all other school processes that are so blindfolded as to make more of the subject and its study than the well-being of the student.

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PRINCIPAL GEO. J. OULTON, B.A., DORCHESTER, N.B.

All classes of teachers from the Presidents and Professors of Universities and Colleges down through all the grades of our Public Schools to the Primary Departments and Kindergarten-all who are engaged in imparting secular instruction in any recognized educational capacity within the bounds of our Dominion, I regard as belonging to one brotherhood. While Ministers and Superintendents of Education, and Supervisors and Inspectors of Schools, etc., are the executive officers of this brotherhood, this brotherhood is the whole body of workers in this great matter of education. All are engaged in the same workthe development of the mental, moral, and physical faculties and endowments of the children and youths of our country. To draw out, develop, and strengthen, to discipline and direct into proper channels the powers which are locked up in the brain, heart and body of the young of this Dominion, is the most important work, the most far-reaching in its results, the most tremendously fraught with destiny both to the individual and the state of any secular work which engrosses human thought and attention. Its influence is powerfully felt, though often not recognized, in every department of human life and activity throughout our country, in every enterprise and employment from ocean to ocean. Education is not confined to the school-room, but is making a circuit of the land. She enters the hovels of the poor and the mansions of the rich, carrying light in her countenance, truth and good-will in her heart, health, wisdom and happiness in her arms. She blesses every home she enters, every life she touches. Nor is this work for the present merely or chiefly. The work being done now in the schools will powerfully influence the 20th century.

Who are these coming up like a swarm, who fill our school-rooms and compose our College and University classes of to-day? They are the coming men and women, who now as boys and girls, and youths with bright faces pressed against the future and hearts full of hope, are treading upon the heels of those before them and preparing to take their places when these shall fall. They go right out from us to be the moving, controlling spirits in every sphere. In a few years we shall look across this continent and they will be managing the farms, working the mines, controlling the shipping and manufacturing industries; they will be the merchants, lawyers, judges, doctors, statesmen, politi-

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cians, senators, governors, ministers of the Gospel; they will have charge of the post offices and customs, banks, prisons, railroads and canals, schools, colleges, universities; they will be the laborers, artisans and artists; the discoverers and inventors. In a word, the social, political and religious life, yea, even our Dominion itself will be what they make it. What they say is right will pass for right, and what they denounce will pass for wrong.

To stand before this living, restless, ambitious throng, these embryonic builders of a nation, with tendencies and capabilities, and natural gifts as varied as can be, and feel that it devolves upon us to teach, direct and discipline it, is enough to make us pause and say, "Who is sufficient for these things?" Surely we need the united wisdom and experience, and the best thought and most sympathetic heart-throb of the age.

Previous to the passing of the British North America Act in 1867, what now constitutes the Dominion of Canada were a number of separated Provinces bound together, by no common bond of sympathy, moved by no common purpose. There was not free interprovincial trade, nor a common currency. Around each Province there ran an invisible wall, separating it from its neighbor Province and the rest of the world. The means of commercial and social intercourse were very meagre indeed. There was no Intercolonial Railway, nor Canadian Pacific Railway binding them together and affording facility for traffic and travel. Public men were actuated by local interests merely. The Provinces were strangers to one another and so disconnected as to render them incapable of united effort. Halifax and St. John were disconnected with Quebec, Montreal, or Toronto. British Columbia and the North-West were almost inaccessible. Interprovincial trade during the winter season was absolutely impossible. Even mails and passengers had to be drawn by horses. In such a condition of things, as might be expected, men were narrow-minded. Provincialism was supreme. The Province was everything, the nation nothing.

In those early times education was as hampered and backward as was trade or travel. My own mind goeth back to the days when a teacher's license in New Brunswick only authorized him to teach within certain three or four counties specified in his license. Later in 1872 the Free Schools Act was inaugurated and licenses became provincial, so that a teacher holding a license could teach anywhere within the Province. So far, so good. This was a long stride in advance. Since that time there has been a great awakening of interest in educational matters. In County and Provincial Institutes teachers have met together and

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discussed the great problems of teaching. They have thus become better acquainted with each other, have received new impulses, adopted improved methods, and the whole work is becoming systematized. This, I believe, is true of all the Provinces, but still we are provincial in school matters as we were in politics and commerce before Confederation. What that union effected I cannot now speak of particularly. But what a change has come over the northern half of this continent in these few years! When it has been found feasible to bring together and unite into one nation of Canada, these incoherent parts widely separated from each other by broad prairies, lofty mountains, roaring cataracts, with different climates, different productions and resources, different markets, different nationalities; when barriers to united thought and action have been thrown down and the foundations of a nation and national greatness have been laid, is it not possible that provincial boundaries in educational matters should be thrown down; that whatever separates us as teachers, and prevents united action, should be removed ? Why should there be a Dominion idea in nearly every part of national life except in education? In the meantime, the rising intelligence, general culture, and broadened educational views are surging up against the walls which surround each Province, against the barriers which are set, and which have said "Hither shalt thou go," as teachers, "but no further," and are demanding a wider horizon, truer citizenship, more generous and far-reaching patriotism.

I claim that we should approach as fast as possible more nearly, at least, to a national system; that our different provincial school courses should be so modified as to make them more nearly alike for the same or corresponding grades. Why should this not be so?

In some departments of human activity all that has been known may be taken as a starting point by each successor in the same sphere, such as is the case in certain scientific research, in discoveries and inventions, etc., where each builds upon foundations laid by others. But such is not the case in educational matters. Each child has to begin at the first, no matter how much his parents know, or to what Province he belongs. I venture to say that a child in Ontario or Quebec, at the age of twelve months knows as little as one of the same age in New Brunswick or Nova Scotia, or any other part of the Dominion. Now, why should he know more or less, or have a different kind of knowledge, or receive a different training at the age of twelve or fifteen years? Why should he be led up through the years of school life, along a very different course ? What has proved to be best in any Province or section, should be adopted generally. If in any Province

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there are schools of a more advanced kind, such as High Schools or Academies, and there is more attention given to secondary education than is the case in other parts of the Dominion, this need not interfere with the uniformity which, I think, should prevail in the work throughout the other grades. Let uniformity prevail up to the point at which the Provinces cease to have similar schools; work in advance of that is a matter for each locality or Province to deal with. All should be educated for Canadian citizenship. Let us throw away the narrow idea of local citizenship merely, and let our plans for the rising generation take a wider sweep, a more comprehensive range, and include the whole Dominion, from east to west, from north to south; let us as teachers, as educators, as Boards of Education, grasp the grand inspiring thought that from ocean to ocean we are one and all engaged in building up a national spirit, an educational system which shall be second to none upon earth, which shall be the completion and counterpart of the grand federal conception, and that in this work from Vancouver to Halifax, we are one united brotherhood.

Having a united Canada, as a brotherhood of teachers, we should set before us the high ideal of making it one of the best educated nations under the sun, and most perseveringly work toward the realization of that ideal. This, I believe, may be largely accomplished and that speedily.

How much instruction shall be imparted in our schools, what subjects shall be taught, is an important subject to consider and discuss, and one in which we are possibly not all agreed. But what is of far greater importance is method, or manner in which that instruction shall be given. On this largely depends the impulse given to Canadian life and the trend of Canadian thought and society. Here we need to feel that we are a brotherhood in mutual sympathy. We need not wait until we are as old as Germany or England before we have as good a school system. We are the heirs of all the ages. We can reach our hands back and grasp again the hands of the great founders of educational principles and practices; Bacon, Locke, Comenius, Arnold, Spencer, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Herbart, Ziller, Rein, and feel that they live again and inspire this great Canadian brotherhood of teachers. The thoughts of such men as Thring, Fitch, Parker, come to aid us. A 'we have in our ranks the living presence of a number of our own Canadian men who have risen to the front rank and to fame as educationists, to guide us in this great work. Thus we have a foundation and more on which we can build. As to method, I do not plead for uniformity in detail. But our pupils must leave us with a key that opens

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in their possession, for unlocking difficulties; they must have power to think and power to express their thoughts. I think that each teacher should have ample opportunity for showing his individuality, originality, inventiveness, genius, if he has any, and should constantly strive after the best. I do not think that it is against a teacher that he impresses his own particular bias upon his school.

"We build the ladder by which we rise From the lowly earth to the vaulted skies, And we mount to the summit round by round."

We must labor for this.

" The heights of great men reached and kept Were not attained by sudden flight ; But they, while their companions slept, Were toiling upward in the night."

Having secured a fair degree of uniformity in the various school courses of the Provinces, next let us have an assimilation of the requirements for teachers' licenses; and when a teacher has fulfilled the requirements and secured a certificate, let provision be made for its recognition in every part of the Dominion. Many teachers after having taught some time in one Province, for various reasons remove to some other, and would still continue to teach but for the fact that the Province of their adoption does not recognize their certificates, and thus their experience is lost to the profession. Again, a general recognition of teachers' certificates would enhance their value and raise the teachers' standing as citizens of Canada. Ministers of the Gospel are frequently transferred, politicians, doctors, Professors in Universities and Colleges and recognized in any part of the country, and why should not all teachers be? For teachers to feel that they are not known or recognized beyond the limits of their own little Province is belittling and not calculated to call forth those lofty and enlightened sentiments of Canadian loyalty and patriotism. A general recognition of teachers' certificates would have a strong tendency to instil and foster the feeling of brotherhood. What an inspiration would assuredly attend the making every teacher eligible according to his grade of license to the highest positions in the Dominion. A mutual interchange of teachers would often be a mutual advantage both to the schools taught and to the teachers themselves. Surely a teacher who can teach Arithmetic, or Grammar, or Geography, or History, or Science, or Latin, or almost any other subject in one Province, can teach it in another, as far as ability to do so is concerned. The development of

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the principles of union and brotherhood is concurrent with the advancement of civilization.

I hold that teaching should proceed on the same line from the Kindergarten to the completion of the University course; that one school course should not overlap another, neither should there be any gap between them; that the pupils should be led along orderly, and developed symmetrically from the first to the last. One of the frequent causes of failure in school work is the fact that the teacher stands too far in advance of his class by presenting work for which they are not prepared. No teacher is privileged to teach a class through all the grades and on through the University courses, therefore it is necessary for each teacher, on taking charge of a class, to be acquainted (not by an examination of the pupils) with the work done by his predecessor, or the one who taught the same class before him, in order that there may be no break or gap in the instruction. These considerations lead me to the conviction that men are too often appointed to Professorships in Universities and Colleges who have no such knowledge of the work done in our schools, and who have had no previous experience in teaching; that these institutions are too far removed from the Public Schools and High Schools in respect of sympathy and intercourse. In fact almost any class of students in the Universities is composed of young people who have come from different Provinces and therefore who have come through quite different courses of instruction. I am convinced that there should be a stronger feeling and recognition of brotherhood among all instructors and officers in every department of school life; that the fact that a teacher has taught a common or High School successfully should be considered an important part of the qualification for a Professorship; that to this great brotherhood of teachers the higher institutions should look for instructors before seeking new and inexperienced men. They have to look to us for their puping why not for their instructors?

Could it not be brough, about that our higher institutions should have such an acquaintance with and interest in the work done in schools outside of themselves, that where a teacher was known to be doing superior work and showing superior ability they might intimate to him that it would be advisable for him to prepare himself to do University work? Would this not tend to keep the best teachers in the profession and also be a stimulus to do the best work possible? Would it not secure to these institutions greater teaching power? Surely ability to teach well in addition to a good fund of knowledge is what is needed, and should characterize every member of this brotherhood would and a government the work do inspecting s the changed various way men to the f class-work, l ing both in

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s should done in yn to be intimate elf to do cchers in possible ? power ? owledge of this brotherhood. Would this not be just and fair to all? I believe it would and can see no reason why it could not be done. The various governments already have Inspectors appointed to inspect and examine the work done in our schools and report accordingly. The manner of inspecting schools could be modified, if it were desirable, so as to suit the changed circumstances. Such a scheme could be worked out in various ways. It would bring the best energies to work and the best men to the front. A teacher's work should be gaged not alone by his class-work, but also by his moral and intellectual influence and standing both in the school and in the community.

Again, I am of opinion that no person should be entitled to receive a Grammar School or High School certificate without having previously taught a school and had his work favourably reported upon by the Inspector or other examiner. The custom of superior officers of recommending to the better positions in Public Schools, especially to principalships, young men and women who have had no experience whatever in teaching, simply because they are brilliant students and have graduated, it may be with honors, is an injurious one. It is unsound in principle, is often an injury to the schools and to those recommended to teach them, and is an injustice to the experienced and qualified teachers of the brotherhood. Principals should have a knowledge of the requirements and work of all the grades below their own and be able to give practical suggestions to the teachers of them. Ability to teach, and not ability to learn merely, should form the basis on which promotion to the better positions should be made. How can it be known that a person has that ability before he has taught? A brilliant student is not more likely to make a successful teacher than one who has had to plod and labor to acquire an education. From the fact that he received his education without much effort on his part, he is less able to sympathize with the great majority of his pupils who are of slower moods and cannot grasp ideas so readily. He is less able to recognize and point out difficulties met by the pupils. tempted to go on too fast, which is a serious blunder. A teacher needs He is to love his work; but such an one as I have been speaking of is not very likely to love the work of patiently leading on his pupils step by step, constantly reviewing and drilling. Finding himself beset with difficulties, he often takes a dislike to the work of teaching altogether, and gives it up. Brilliant students are apt to seek some calling where there is more reasonable chance of distinguishing themselves or of reaching a higher place than is possible in school-teaching. If they are placed in the best schools in the country, they will probably only

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make them stepping stones to something else. While the schools have lost by poor teaching and frequent changes of teachers, and some who like teaching and give promise of making excellent teachers, through having failed to secure the better positions, are also inclined to leave the brotherhood. Unquestionably the greatest factor in any school is the teacher himself. Good houses, suitable apparatus and appliances are necessary, but the teacher makes the school, and must have his heart in his work. Power and skill to teach and govern a school well must be acquired largely in the same way as power and skill to do anything else well, viz., by practice and experience. The best training a teacher can get is that obtained by teaching. Let everything possible be done to retain the best teachers in the brotherhood by holding out to them the sure and certain reward to energy, perseverance and skill.

No teacher should be placed in a school, or be promoted for merely political reasons, or through undue influence of friends. Let it never be said of any of us that we bowed at any man's door for preferment; but let each without waiting for anybody to take us by the hand, take for our motto "Deserve success and you shall command it."

Since the ruder and earlier days when teachers boarded around and had to hunt up schools by getting subscribers and then collect tuition fees themselves, when teachers were looked upon as "brisk wielders of the birch and rod," much, very much has been accomplished; great advances have been made in every phase of school life. All the property in the country, feels and recognizes the duty and responsibility of contributing towards the education of the people. Instead of Parish School Boards we have Provincial, and better systems, better schoolhouses, better equipments in the shape of apparatus and appliances for carrying on the work, better trained and better paid teachers, more and better books, a greatly improved public sentiment and awakened interest in educational matters. County and Provincial Institutes have been established, and have done much to improve methods of teaching and of discipline. In these teachers and officers of every educational department have met and become acquainted with each other. Here we have learned that our aims, our hopes; our labors are one. A fraternal feeling has sprung up which cannot be bounded by provincial lines. This great assembly of educationists here in Toronto to-day is an unmistakable illustration of the brotherhood of teachers. We have come from all parts of the country, from far and near, to represent every phase of school life, impelled by the lofty, almost sacred thought that we are one. Interchange of thought and intermingling of peoples

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must develop this feeling of brotherhood. When we look back from our vantage ground to-day, to the log schoolhouses, scarcity of books, and isolation of but comparatively recent years we cannot but feel that much has been accomplished.

In material, commercial, social, and political life, Canada has made rapid strides. When I would speak of her greatness, I would tell of her vast territories, stretching from these enormous lakes away to the frozen north; from the Atlantic to the Pacific-a reach of territory so great, that hours after the busy hum of the day's activities has begun in the east, in the west there is the calm sweetness of the early morning sleep. I would tell of the opening up of avenues of interprovincial intercourse almost appalling in their vastness; of vast systems of canals and railways; of mighty rivers, expanded lakes, towering mountains, fertile valleys, rich unmeasured prairie land; of her fishing and agricultural resources, mineral wealth, manufacturing facilities, and impregnable fortresses. But I would mention as the crowning glory of all, her growing educational institutions; that every school-house is open to the poorest child in the land where he may enter and find a teacher to welcome and instruct him in all things that make life worth having. There he is taught the true lessons of life, the first of which is to win the glorious privilege of being independent, and to acquire those talents of prudence self-discipline, self-respect, industry and sobriety, without which it is given to no one to achieve the best results. The opportunity of acquiring a liberal education placed within the reach of all the children and youths of the country is the most promising offspring of civilization. Our schools and Colleges if wisely conducted and well taught are a surer protection against internal disorder and external foes than all the munitions of war. "Armories and arsenals and fleets of war-ships may give an external prestige and grandeur to a nation, but the best defence that any country can possess, is an enlightened, moral, and law-abiding citizenship; an intelligent, laboring population, a free and complete system of education, so unsectarian and nondenominational as to meet the just demands of every faith and every rank and condition of life."

Canada, I think, for a young country, may justly feel proud of her educational achievements and equipments. Yet much remains to be done. The future is big with possibilities. As an educational system it is broken up into fragments; as a brotherhood we scarcely recognize each other or even the fact that we should work together throughout as a brotherhood. This condition of things surely must not continue long. To me it seems a pity that any barriers should separate us.

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"Mountains interposed make enemies of nations who had else been mingled into one." I think wisdom counsels us to approach as nearly as possible to a national system of education; to bring together our different school courses and make them more nearly harmonize with each other; to so modify our different modes of training and licensing teachers as to make certificates of a like grade of license equal throughout the Dominion, and that they be recognized as such. The entrance to this teaching profession-to this brotherhood should be gradually narrowed that boys and girls sixteen to eighteen years of age shall be granted first-class licenses to teach, and be considered capable of taking charge of almost any school, although they may have scarcely any qualification except that they can pass a certain literary examination, must be discarded. There needs to be better provision for the training of teachers, for instruction and practice in professional work before receiving first-class certificates. The vast difference between knowing a subject, and the ability to impart instruction in it well, must become recognized before the teaching profession shall command that public respect which it should, or worthy teachers receive salaries according to the quality of their work. In teaching more attention must be paid to psychological principles before the best results can be obtained. We want a much larger number of College-taught teachers. Inducements to enter upon teaching for a brief time, merely as a stepping-stone, are too great, while inducements to those who have a talent for it to remain in the profession and make it a life-work are far too meagre. Teachers should be paid partly according to length of service and quality of work done.

The number of pupils and grades which a teacher is required to teach is much too large. Many bright boys and girls are required to go too slowly to keep up their interest because there are so many duller ones in the same classes. The best a teacher can do, who has fifty or sixty pupils and three or four grades to teach, is to about strike an average. Thus the clever ones have to be kept back for the slower; and still the work is too fast for the slower, consequently they both lose interest and get into careless habits. There is too much effort made to make all the pupils in our classes alike. This nature never intended. But the teachers must do it, for lack of time to give further instruction to those who are able to receive it. The classes of the future must be much smaller in order to allow individual power to exercise itself and develop.

Governments should make some provision for the superannuation of

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teachers. Many who have rendered far less service to the commonwealth than the faithful teacher who has worn out in his arduous calling are superannuated. Why should not the teacher be? Thus protected, many more men and women of the highest character and ability would be drawn to the profession, and those who love the work of teaching would be induced to continue at it, and we should have a much improved class of teachers.

We should seek to instil in the hearts and minds of all our pupils, loyalty and patriotism. Love of country must extend beyond the Rockies; it must become as wide as the continent. To aid us in this let us have in our school libraries, as far as possible, the biographies and productions of our own Canadian men and women. I was much surprised to see, a week or two ago, a statement in the St. John Telegraph, that Mr. W. G. MacFarlane has just published a book called "New Brunswick Bibliography," which is an account of the books and writings of the Province. In it he had dealt with the writings of five hundred authors. No doubt the other Provinces of the Dominion could produce an equally surprising array. Some of these from the various Provinces should be in our school libraries, to be used as supplementary reading. We should also have parliamentary debates, important laws, etc., national songs, and collections of specimens from as many parts of Canada as possible to illustrate lessons in Geography, History, Natural Sciences, etc.

Dr. Hall, of Normal School, Truro, Nova Scotia, says: "No feature of education is more important or more cared for in Germany than the manners and deportment of the children. One may travel in Germany and visit schools for weeks and not hear a vulgar expression or see a rude act. The politeness, order and deportment of the school children in Prussia is worthy of imitation." Let us seek to make this truly said of Canadian children.

Ladies and gentlemen, fellow teachers and officers, I love Canada! I love to think of all teachers within it as members of one brotherhood ! We are working upon the highest creation of God. These minds and hearts that come to us for instruction are sparks from the Infinite. We need the highest form of wisdom, broadest knowledge, the purest hearts, the most consecrated earnestness, and the deepest inspiration of the age. Upon the quality of our work depends untold destinies to the individuals, to the homes and to the nation. Let us look forward to the time, with the feeling which is more than a dream or a wild reach of imagination, when what I have mentioned in this paper, and much more, shall be accomplished; when, as a great plant or tree 20

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strikes its roots deeper into the soil, spreads its branches wider, increases the size of its trunk and lifts its head higher year by year, so our educational system shall reach towards the cradle and, embracing the kindergartens, make them a part of itself; when our common and High Schools shall become much better equipped and conducted; when our Colleges and Universities shall give professional instruction in teaching and so enthuse many of their clever young men and women with the dignity and importance of the teaching profession that they will come knocking at the door of this brotherhood for admission, intending to make it a life-work; when there shall be something like unity of procedure and gradation from the lowest to the highest schools; when Froebel's Kindergarten methods shall be perfected and carried on symmetrically throughout the whole. This work is largely ours; and when Canada has become (as I hope she may) the best educated nation on earth, then shall appear to the nation and to the civilized world the work and worth of this great brotherhood of teachers.

> "The crisis presses on us, face to face with us it stands With solemn lips of question like the sphinx in Egypt's sands, This day we fashion destiny, the web of fate we spin, This day for all hereafter choose we wisely or we sin."

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REV. N. BURWASH, M.A., S.T.D., LL.D., CHANCELLOR OF VICTORIA UNIVERSITY.

Ruskin has taught us to borrow from the sphere of industry and the production and distribution of wealth the word economics, and to apply it to the production and distribution of spiritual things. It is true that his spiritual things were embodied in the material form of pictures and statuary, and as such were a part of the nation's wealth. But we will venture to press the word a step further. We cannot indeed exchange our sons and daughters for gold as we can our paintings and marbles or bronzes. But none the less do we feel that they are our most valuable treasures, and if we cannot part with them for value they can none the less produce for us wealth, and happy is not the man alone but the country as well that hath its quiver full of them. The prosperity of any country depends upon the power of its population to make the most of its resources. That power depends upon numbers, moral quality, intellectual quality, and physical quality. As to numbers, numbers of poor quality become not a help to, but a dead weight on the prosperity of the country. While numbers are desirable for the full development of a large country like ours with almost unlimited resources of field, forest, fishery and mine, our first duty is to see to it that the quality is up to standard, up to the highest practicable standard morally, intellectually and physically, and this is the field of education in the broadest sense. If our country is to be truly prosperous we must educate our young population, just as a farmer must train his horses if they are to be of any value. And in this work the whole country has a common interest. All classes and sections of the community are one here. True prosperity consists not in one individual getting wealth by taking more than his share and thus stripping his neighbor, but in the more abundant production of new wealth, in which all shall share. And to this end the entire working force of the country, i.e., all its people (no drones), must be strong-strong physically, strong intellectually, strong in moral character. We have the land and we can easily get the capital if we have the strength, intelligence and energy necessary to use it. The proper all round educa-

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tion of our young people is the first economic, industrial and political need of our country, the most important plank in the platform of any party who desire to make this country a good land for all the people to live in. Patrons of Industry, Knights of Labor, Reformers, Conservatives, even the P.P.A., will make a fatal mistake if from a narrow point of view they forget the fundamental condition for the good which they seek, and they all set some good before them even if they go a long way round to get at it. The good which they all seek is bound up with this interest.

The great forces which largely do the work of raising the quality of our country's population are three, or we might say four. (1) The home upon which the physical man so largely depends for his start in life, (2) the educational or school system which gives the intellectual nature its start, (3) the Church, which is the centre of a nation's moral life, and (4) the press, including all forms of literature, which contributes to all. It is of course quite clear that these forces each affect, directly or indirectly, the whole field, and yet each has its centre at some one point of the field.

From such a point we wish to discuss the economics of education, by which we understand, not the relations of education to the production of a nation's material wealth, but, taking it for granted that education contributes to a nation's well-being in every direction, the principles by which we can obtain the highest results both in the standard of education and in the general distribution of its advantages.

Education is usually distinguished as primary, secondary and higher, corresponding to the Public School, the High School and the University. Again, the secondary and higher education is distinguished as general and technical or professional. We have thus in a complete system of education such as we find in the most advanced countries of Europe and America, the following classes of schools.

1. Primary Schools. These are frequently preceded by the kindergarten, the object of which is simply development of the power of acquiring knowledge through the senses combined with physical development. It is supposed that from one to two years can be gained in the subsequent progress of pupils by means of this preliminary training between four and seven years of age.

The object of the Primary School itself is the communication of those elements of knowledge which every man should possess for the practical work of our common life. Every person should be able to read, write, present his thoughts, spoken or written, in simple and correct English, make common arithmetical and commercial calculations, and know the pr elements of citizenship. have for the basis of all continue his school curric be thorough

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those pracpread, correct s, and know the proper form for simple business documents, understand the elements of the history and geography of his country and the duties of citizenship. This education is not only that which every person must have for the common purposes of life, but it is at the same time the basis of all subsequent advance in knowledge. The pupil who is to continue his studies for years and the pupil for whom this is the only school curriculum alike require this course, and require that it should be thoroughly mastered—made an accurate and permanent acquisition.

Secondary education at once widens the sphere of thought and life. It leads a man beyond the intellectual operations absolutely necessary for the common work of life by unfolding to him first the principles upon which those operations depend. To his Arithmetic and Mensuration the pupil adds the Algebra and Geometry which unfold their scientific basis. To the simple Composition he adds the principles of To his Geography he adds the elementary principles of Rhetoric. Natural Science. Thus in every direction the student in the secondary school passes from the simple mastery of facts to the mastery of the principles upon which the facts depend. At the same time the field of facts and processes is greatly enlarged. Geography and History are extended. The Grammar of other languages is introduced. The simple reading of narrative prose is extended to the study of higher forms of literature. The field of secondary education is no longer the absolutely necessary, but that which satisfies our rational and æsthetic nature as well, and which enlarges the uses of life.

In the same way the higher or University education builds upon the secondary, first, by perfecting the knowledge of principles by adding the study of various sciences, and in our day by carrying some one of these to its present limits. Second, by extending the knowledge of literature to a wider view, including not only our own literature but also the literatures of our European civilization, both ancient and modern. Third, by unfolding the laws of thought upon which all our knowledge is based and of moral action upon which all human history depends.

In the present discussion we may for the sake of simplicity set aside the consideration of technical and professional education, which is based on one or other of the three stages of general education. That the farmer, the merchant, the mechanic, the journalist, the apothecary, the physician, the teacher, or the lawyer, should each understand his business, goes without saying. But aside from that, the excellence of work of one and all these will depend upon the average intelligence of the profession or business and upon the particular intelligence of the

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individual. The first problem therefore of the economics of education is, how can we elevate the average intelligence of the whole nation? Then follows the second, how can we perfect and elevate the technical intelligence of the people in the fundamental industries of the nation? Technical intelligence is based upon general, and to a people of high general intelligence the acquisition of technical intelligence becomes easy.

Addressing ourselves, therefore, to the first problem our answer is this:

1. The nation must first of all have within itself the resources of the highest intelligence. The education of the individual proceeds from the lower to the higher, that of the state as a whole from the higher to the lower.

Our fathers built wisely when in the last century before they had founded a single elementary school, they made provision for a University. Out among the plateaus of the Rocky Mountains there are vast stretches of desert lands requiring only the fertilizing water to convert them into a garden of Eden. Men can never accomplish that, however, by carrying water by the pailful from some little rill. They go to the great lakes lying up amid the melting snows of the mountains, and thence they carry great streams, which subdivided into rills, water and fertilize all the plain. So must it be in the work of the education of a nation. The perfection, the power, the very life of the whole work depends upon a strong, rich, abundant source of all needed learning at the fountain head. From this not only teachers but, leaders of the highest intelligence and culture, are continually flowing out into all the fields of living activity in the country. The nation without a thoroughly efficient University system of its own can only borrow its learning from other lands. This it may do partly through books. But all educators understand the serious and almost fatal defects of mere book learning, especially in all the sciences which deal with material nature. It may import learned foreigners to fill its educational offices. But this will always prove expensive. If to-day we were obliged to import our High School teachers from abroad, I venture to say that to obtain anything like the same quality, the average salary would need to be increased fifty per cent., i.e., from £200 to £300 sterling, an increase in the item of High School salaries alone of \$260,000, or more than twice the present cost of our provincial University, and more than the combined cost of all the Universities of Ontario; in fact we could cover with that also the Arts Faculty of McGill. But the expense is not the only consideration. Years must elapse before foreigners can feel the interest in our country which is inbred in the hearts of our own best young men. Then from foreign lands we can rarely hope to

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draw the best. We must be content with second and even third class. It is only an occasional good fortune that brings us the best, and then one-half of them soon leave us again even when they come to fill our University chairs. If we had only High School work to offer them, second-class would be the very best that we could expect. Again of our University graduates, not more than twenty-five per cent. become teachers. The rest become our ministers, lawyers, doctors, engineers, journalists, merchants, bankers, farmers and manufacturers and members of parliament and civil servants, i.e., the country that maintains its own Universities in thorough efficiency, not only lays the most economical foundation for the highest efficiency in its entire educational work, but provides itself with an abundant supply of men of the broadest intelligence in all other walks of life beside. It may be thought that we can best supply our educational ranks by sending our own young men abroad. But here again we must look at the practical results. First of all, if we send them to the United States, we shall lose a large part of the best of them. If we send them to Europe we at once double or treble the expense of higher education; we deprive the country of the educated work of many of its brightest minds who happen to be born in comparative poverty; and, again, we increase the expense of our whole High School work to an extent more than sufficient to maintain our University system at home, and still fail to secure for our country the rich and varied supplies of higher intelligence which our own University system affords.

It thus appears that whether we study efficiency, abundance, or economy in the provision of our educational resources for the country, we must lay the foundation for the intelligence of the country in a thoroughly efficient University system. To employ another figure the University is the very heart from which the vital fluid is sent to all the extremities of the body politic, and only a feeble embryonic circulation can be maintained, even from the heart of the mother country. Again, as the heart gathers in the blood from all parts of the body to send it forth renewed with vital energy, so the University becomes the centre which attracts to itself the best minds from the furthest extremities of our national life to send them forth again to strengthen and enlarge the intelligence of the whole people. In no country is this circulation more important than in one like ours. By it the unity of national life is maintained. The blood that in its last round supplied the foot in its next, may feed the hand or eye or brain. The free untrammeled vigorous circulation of the units of national life of which the University is the centre, saves us more effectually than any one other force from the

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evils of class rule, whether that class be an hereditary oligarchy or a plutocracy. No country can make a wiser investment for its educational future than in the founding of an efficient and freely accessible University.

But having thus posited the University as the fountain head or heart of the educational system, it is easy to see that the fountain can be efficient only through distributing channels which reach from the fountain head to the extremities. We have a magnificent reservoir on Rose Hill, but from it the distributing mains must traverse all our streets, and the branches must enter every house if we would have abundance of water in all our dwellings. Some have, indeed, thought that we can, as a public, dispense with our High Schools. But the High Schools are the Universities of the mass of the people. The county Collegiate Institute is the centre of knowledge, the fountainhead for all the country round, the heart of all its educational enterprise and vigour. Wherever, in this Province, you find a secondary school of the highest class you will find the entire system of primary schools in higher efficiency around it. A little less than 2,000 of the young people of this Province each year reach the University, 23,000 reach the secondary schools, and there drink in something of the richer learning which comes from the University fountain, while these, in turn, distribute knowledge to 450,000 pupils of our primary schools. Could the 450,000 be educated as effectively or as economically without the intervening link of the 23,000. Is not every man stimulated by the example of his neighbor standing on a higher platform? Shame on the petty spirit which says, away with the platform, the common level is enough for me, if my neighbor wishes to get up, he must use his own stilts. No, if the platform is there you yourself may climb. Your children will almost surely climb. But if you tear it down, some few will find stilts and walk over the heads of the common level. No more short-sighted, selfish, unpatriotic policy was ever dreamed of than that which would cut out the very heart and sever the very arteries of our national education, by cutting off its Universities and higher schools. And why? To save expense? We pay four millions a year for the support of our Public Schools. We pay about one-sixth that amount for the support of our secondary schools. Cut off the secondary schools, or increase their cost to the pupils, and in ten years' time you will be paying more than the difference in increased salaries for your Public Schools. No, make all higher education easily accessible, because inexpensive, to every child of the nation, and it will flow on and out as freely, richly and abundantly, as it is given to all the people.

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MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

FRENCH POETRY SINCE THE ROMANTICS.

J. SQUAIR, B.A., TORONTO.

French Romanticism was the expression in literature of the ecstatic individualism which was developed in the nation during the end of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth centuries. That the Revolution did not bring the millennium, was a fact which did not destroy the fond optimism of those who believed in a speedy realization of human perfectibility. The disastrous collapse of the first Republic was to be deplored, but after all it was a mere accident in the onward and upward march. Liberty, equality and fraternity, were still the everlasting principles, the ideals to which men were to look, the fountains from which to draw inspiration. It took a great deal of adverse circumstance and a large growth in knowledge of various kinds to cool the heated imaginations of men. It was about the year 1820, that the self-analysis and nature-worship of Rousseau and Chateaubriand, coupled with the optimism and love of the poetry of the peoples of the north of Mme de Staël, blossomed forth in the poetry of the first Romantics. And from that date till about 1850, the world was filled with the tears, the passion, the shouts of victory of the Lamartines, the Mussets, and the Hugos. True, there were even amongst the Romantics such poets as de Vigny, who looked with a more pessimistic eye upon human life, or such as Gautier who, charmed with the outward beauty of things, tried to make poetry less subjective and also more like one of the plastic arts. But apparently they came too soon to make an impression. The mind of the world was set in the other direction, it was still pleased with hopeful views regarding the speedy perfecting of the human lot, still satisfied with brilliant and striking comparisons of nature and human feeling, although such metaphors might be very inaccurate. But gradually a change comes over the intellectual and emotional atmosphere. The first half of the century saw a half dozen changes of dynasties and forms of government-an empire, two monarchies, and two republics, had passed away. Extension of the franchise, widening of commercial relations, peace congresses, freeing of down-trodden peoples, scientific discoveries, from all of which so much had been expected, did not appreciably lessen the

sum of human misery. And in addition to all this, a new view of human history grew up, namely, that men change but slowly, that you cannot force human nature suddenly into better ways, no matter how powerful the machinery you use, that human society is a growth, to be changed, if changed at all, from within by the gradual adaptation of its parts to new conditions, rather than by any mechanical cutting and fitting from the outside. Victor Hugo, sitting in his lonely exile, with his thoughts turned in upon himself, appeared to live on, largely unconscious of this new state of things, giving forth works even more personal and lyric than his earliest poetry, such as les Châtiments and les Contemplations, but at the heart of the nation a new school of poetry was forming to correspond to the altered conditions; a school which should say less about its own joys and sorrows, which should be less enthusiastic and more accurate than Hugo and his friends, which should be truer to history and science, whose methods should be more after the manner of those of the scholar than of those of the demagogue.

One of the most important of this school is LECONTE DE LISLE (1818-1894), whose earliest volume appeared at about the same time as Hugo's *Châtiments* (1853). It bore the name of *Poèmes antiques*, and was followed in 1862 by *Poèmes barbares*, and in 1884 by *Poèmes tragiques*, and by single poems from time to time down to the day of his death. These names are applied to the three volumes somewhat arbitrarily, and are not to be taken as indicating groups of works differing from one another in kind; in each are to be found representatives of the various kinds of subjects treated.

Considering, then, the works of Leconte de Lisle as a whole, the first thing to be noted is his correction of a certain narrowness which characterized the Romantics in choice of subject. Romanticism was a protest against Classicism, and since the Classicists had a very strong admiration for everything connected with the literature of Greece and Rome, the Romantics affected to have a small amount of esteem for these literatures, and neglected to use the themes which they naturally suggested, preferring such as were afforded by the history and legend of the Middle Ages, and by what people like Hugo and Gautier called Orientalism. But, as is well known, the scientific spirit, which, it was feared, would put an end to all interest in antiquity, really produced a strong revival of interest in such matters, and made men more anxious than ever to reconstruct the past and know its exact meaning. Leconte de Lisle is the poet of this new love of antiquity, but, like the rest of his generation, his sympathies had a wider sweep than Greece and Rome.

They embra and of the of Hypatia Naboth, Mo of treatmen both Classic those of J. I are struck ment, which pictures of time. On t classical one vivid enougl differs from cognizable, n effects, but f what the mo covered rega suppose that verse. On t the voicing o palpitate wit of subjects gr the Hindoo s

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They embraced, in addition to these, the antiquities of the Hindoos and of the Semitic and Germanic races. Thus, not only does he sing of Hypatia, Niobe, Hercules and Helen, but also of Bhagavat, Cain, Naboth, Mohammed and Balder. It is to be noted, also, that his manner of treatment of these subjects is very different from the treatment of both Classicists and Romantics. If we read such classical poems as those of J. B. Rousseau, in the early part of the eighteenth century, we are struck by a certain vagueness, a certain indefiniteness in treatment, which make us feel that their author was attempting to draw pictures of heroes and deities which belong to no particular place or time. On the other hand, when Hugo treats his Oriental subjectsclassical ones he almost always avoids-he gives us pictures that are vivid enough, but which we feel cannot be accurate. Leconte de Lisle differs from both. His pictures are not generalized so as to be unrecognizable, nor are they drawn for the purpose of producing strong effects, but for the purpose of giving us exact and true pictures of what the most patient investigators in the field of antiquity have discovered regarding the actual condition of the past. But we must not suppose that these poems are mere bits of antiquarian lore put into verse. On the contrary, they are what the true poetry of every age is, the voicing of the things that lie nearest the heart of that age. They palpitate with the life of the nineteenth century, although they treat of subjects grey with age. Listen to him as he sings of the sorrows of

the Hindoo soul in his poem Bhagavat :

Une plainte est au fond de la rumeur des nuits, Lamentation large et souffrance inconnue Qui monte de la terre et roule dans la nue ; Soupir du globe errant dans l'éternel chemin, Mais effacé toujours par le soupir humain. Sombre douleur de l'homme, ô voix triste et profonde, Plus forte que les bruits innombrables du monde, Cri de l'âme, sanglot du cœur supplicié, Qui t'entend sans frémir d'amour et de pitié? Qui ne pleure sur toi, magnanime faiblesse, Esprit qu'un aiguillon divin excite et blesse, Qui t'ignores toi-même et ne peux te saisir, Et sans borner jamais l'impossible désir, Durant l'humaine nuit qui jamais ne s'achève, N'embrasses l'Infini qu'en un sublime rêve ? O douloureux Esprit, dans l'espace emporté, Altéré de lumière, avide de beauté, Qui retombes toujours de la hauteur divine Où tout être vivant cherche son origine, Et qui gémis, saisi de tristesse et d'effroi, O conquérant vaincu, qui ne pleure sur toi ?

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Where shall we find a more vivid and powerful expression of that unquenchable longing of the human heart in its search for excellence : alteré de lumière, avide de beauté? But we cannot fail to notice that this expression of sadness is not a merely personal one. If Hugo had been speaking, we should have had it forced upon our attention, that it was the depths of the poet's own heart which were being moved, but Leconte de Lisle in the dignity of impersonality becomes the mouthpiece of the spirit of his age. He speaks not for himself alone, but for us, his contemporaries, as well. And this beautiful reserve becomes one of his attractive features. We admire him because he does not obtrude himself upon our notice. He gains by this attitude distinct advantages over the intensely subjective order of poet; he preserves his dignity, is saved from becoming oracular, and keeps the respect of his readers by making himself one of them. These advantages are, however, to some extent, counterbalanced by the lack of fire which almost always accompanies that which is severely impersonal.

One of the striking qualities of Leconte de Lisle is his ability to give a proper natural setting to the very varied group of characters which he has created. One explanation of this is to be found in the fact that he was born in the tropics, and that unlike many of his fellow-countrymen, he travelled a great deal, particularly in the tropical parts of the world. His ability to describe the richness of the landscape, and the appearance and habits of animals seems to me perfectly marvellous. It is really wonderful how he can, by means of words, paint colors and movements. Moreover, in addition to these "settings" in his larger poems, he has succeeded, as very few have done, in giving us charming little pictures devoted entirely to the description of certain beasts and birds which have struck his fancy, such as la Panthère noire, le Jaguar, les Eléphants and le Sommeil du Condor. How he delights in painting the strength and savage beauty of these fierce creatures! The black huntress of Java returning with the slain stag to nourish her young ones waiting for her in the den, the jaguar crouching, ramassé sur ses reins musculeux, waiting for the wild ox of the pampas, upon which he springs, du creux des branches entr'ouvertes as if shot from a bow ! His description of the march of the elephants across the silent desert is particularly impressive-note the description of the leader :

> Celui qui tient la tête est un vieux chef. Son corps Est gercé comme un tronc que le temps ronge et mine ; Sa tête est comme un roc, et l'arc de son échine Se voûte puissamment à ses moindres efforts.

And note, too, how near he brings them to man in sentiment:

This is t the spirit of family as o being paint only fit and the poems of the environ very strikin man as he strong, he n of the caves and the mos would have politics, but for justice,savage, a ma

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Ils reverront le fleuve échappé des grands morts, Où nage en mugissant l hippopotame énorme, Où, blanchis par la lune et projetant leur forme, Ils descendaient pour boire en écrasant les joncs. Aussi, pleins de courage et de lenteur, ils passent Comme une ligne noire, au sable illimité ; Et le désert reprend son immobilité Quand les lourds voyageurs à l'horizon s'effacent.

This is the expression of the sympathies of a man who has seized the spirit of nineteenth century science. These animals are of the same family as ourselves, with like passions, and are consequently worthy of being painted for the interest we take in them. Man is no longer the only fit and proper study of man. We see the scientific spirit also in the poems on antique subjects where the poet attempts to reconstruct the environment in which his characters move, as for instance in the very striking poem on Cain, where we have a picture of prehistoric man as he appears to the anthropologists of our time. Huge and strong, he moves amongst the monsters of the period,-the hairy bear of the caves, and the wild oxen,-without flinching, already the bravest and the most capable of them all. He is not a philosopher, as Milton would have painted him, discoursing on abstruse topics of theology and politics, but still he has a heart in him, can feel shame, and the desire for justice,-la soif de la justice me dévore. He is a man although a savage, a man of suffering, and his misfortunes touch our hearts.

There is another respect in which Leconte de Lisle reflects the scientific spirit, and that is in the moderate, subdued tone which pervades his work. There is none of that triumphant optimism which is so characteristic of Hugo as when he says in *les Châtiments*:

Temps futurs ! vision sublime ! Les peuples sont hors de l'abime, Le désert morne est traversé. Après les sables, la pelouse ; Et la terre est comme une épouse, Et l'homme est comme un fiancé. . Au fond des cieux un point scintille.

Regardez, il grandit, il brille, Il approche, énorme et vermeil. O République universelle Tu n'es encor que l'étincelle, Demain tu seras le soleil !

The idea that men will be made happy by the magical force of some sudden change in political machinery is one which has lost its hold on the soberer part of the world, and Leconte de Lisle gives no countenance to it in his writings. Nor, on the other hand, do we hear any ecstatic wail of despair, but rather a sensible, matter-of-fact acceptance

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of conditions as we find them, content to wait for betterment till it comes by the slow processes of nature, by the widening of knowledge and the growth of conscience in individual men.

Leconte de Lisle has solved the problem of being true to the science of his time without falling into aridity or pedantry, although he has been reproached with the latter on account of the curious spelling which he has adopted in the case of many classical and scriptural names: Caïn is Qaïn, Hercule is Hèraklès, etc. But this is a small affair, and whichever form of orthography he might have adopted, would not have spoiled his poetry. He is not, however, a popular poet. He is too elevated, too scholarly to appeal to the multitude, His poetry requires too much reflection, lacks too much in satire and is too moderate in tone to have hosts of readers. Moreover, the exactness of speech and the exceedingly high finish, are such as find favor only with a limited class.

I cannot close my short and imperfect description of his works without referring to the last of his poems, published in the *Revue des deux Mondes* (December 1st, 1894), a short time after his death. It bears the name of *la Mort du Moine*, and is the story of the martyrdom of a monk by the Albigenses, of later mediæval or early reformation times. It is a fine, severe piece of work, reminding one of some group of classic statuary. The characters are all sketched, although briefly, with a firm hand. The executioners and the victim are all equally serious and conscientious. They punish the poor monk as in the sight of heaven, because it is their duty to purge the earth of the monsters who are the disciples of Antichrist, who look to the scarlet woman seated on the Seven Hills. He on his part receives his punishment from poor misguided heretics, who would destroy the Holy Church. It is his duty to defend the truth, and for the truth he gladly receives the knife plunged into his heart.

It was my intention to have discussed other poets of our day, but my half-hour will not permit me to do more than mention a few names in addition to that of Leconte de Lisle. Fortunately what has been said about him may be applied in a greater or less degree to a considerable group of poets often spoken of as the *Parnassiens*, two or three of the most important of whom I must hastily mention before I close.

SULLY PRUDHOMME is the philosopher of the group, who has attempted with considerable success to give poetical expression to the philosophy of our time in *la Justice* and *le Bonheur*.

FRANÇOIS COPPÉE is the poet particularly of everyday life. In such poems as we have in the group which he has called *les Humbles*, we have the happy realization of the expression in poetry of the ordinary occurrences has succeed clear of ban

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occurrences of plain *bourgeois* life. He is a sort of Wordsworth, and has succeeded much more successfully than Wordsworth in keeping clear of *banalité* in the treatment of simple subjects.

M. DE HEREDIA, one of the newest Academicians, has published one volume of excellent verse called *les Trophées*, in which we find much to remind us of the fine work of Leconte de Lisle.

There are many others who would be interesting to discuss such as that master of verse, but extremely morbid poet CHARLES BAUDELAIRE, and later JEAN RICHEPIN, who might be considered as the twin brother of Zola in certain respects. He is a powerful writer, but extremely unpleasant in the choice of his subjects. But they must be passed by to come to the indefinitely outlined group of décadents or symbolistes whose most striking representative is perhaps STÉPHANE MALLARMÉ. The cause of the genesis of the group seems to be a desire to find forms of poetical expression which shall be less precise than those used by the Parnassiens. Parnassianism was a revolt against Romanticism on account of the extravagance of the latter. Symbolism is a revolt against the extreme exactness and precision of the Parnassians. Its ideal appears to be to convey poetical images by means of suggestion, so to speak, instead of by elaborate description and explanation, but up to the present it appears that the writers of this group have not succeeded, in many cases, in striking the happy mean between suggestive vagueness and intelligibility, and have consequently brought upon themselves the charge that their writings are quite incomprehensible to ordinary humanity.

The Parnassians, the Symbolists, and such as Jean Richepin, who is sometimes said to belong to the *rosse* class, seem then to comprise the most of the present day poets of France. Many and important differences separate them, and yet they have some features in common with the mention of which I close the present paper.

As to choice of subjects, they are extremely catholic; they disdain no topic, whether it pertains to ancient civilizations or barbaric conditions, or to modern science or philosophy. They seem to prefer themes which suggest sensuous thoughts and images. In spirit they are mostly pessimistic and materialistic. In all matters of technique they are extremely fastidious; they take delight in finely polished verse, and have a preference for elegant forms of poems, such as the sonnet and ode. They regard poetry as one of the arts, as a sister of painting or sculpture or music; they are in short mostly of that school which does not consider the expression of ideas as the main thing in poetry, but which makes the form in which they are expressed the thing of paramount importance.

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A CONSIDERATION OF THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF TEN ON ENGLISH.

S. J. RADCLIFFE, B.A., LONDON.

The National Council of Education in 1891 appointed a Committee of Ten to inquire into the different subjects that enter on the programmes of secondary schools in the United States. This Committee decided to hold separate conferences in (1) Latin, (2) Greek, (3) English, (4) Modern Languages, (5) Mathematics, (6) Physics, Astronomy and Chemistry, (7) Natural History, (8) History, (9) Geography. They decided that each conference should consist of ten members, and that these conferences should be held at different places and be quite independent of one another. The members of each of these conferences were selected by the original Committee with regard to the scholarship and experience of these gentlemen, to the fair division of members between colleges and schools, and to the proper geographical distribution of the membership. A series of questions were submitted to each of the conferences as a guide in the discussions. The Committee of Ten on English met at Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N.Y., and was composed of gentlemen eminent in the profession. We notice the names of Professor Gummere of Haverford College, Pennsylvania, of Professor Kittredge of Harvard University, and of Professor Edward E. Hale of Iowa. The most singular unanimity prevailed in the English conferences, which must be considered as striking and important considering the different localities, institutions, professional experiences and personalities represented.

It will be my endeavor to examine this report in its relation to English in our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes; to question at times whether we are in advance or behind the progress in this department of education in the United States, and to consider whether the changes in the new curriculum have been in advance or retrograde movement.

The first question that is to be considered is the absence of Philology and Historical Grammar as a part of our High School course. The conference think that one period a week should be given to this important part of an English course. It may do very well for students who are going to attend the University and who will have an opportunity to learn something of the origin and material of their language. But the great mass of our students never attend the University. They pass their 1 medicine, or the languag Anglo-Saxo ment. The Egyptians o who has atte pass out wit to blame tea deficiencies, adheres rigid turous teach now wander ject is not or definite time

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pass their Matriculation or Leaving Examinations, and go into law, medicine, or commercial life, knowing nothing of the composite nature of the language we speak. Ask an average class to select the words of Anglo-Saxon, French or Latin origin, and they will look at you in amazement. They are not sure whether we borrowed our language from the Egyptians or got it direct from Adam and Eve. I hold that no student who has attended our High Schools for four years should be allowed to pass out without substantial knowledge in this department. It is easy to blame teachers for not departing from the curriculum and supplying deficiencies, but the successful teacher is the one nowadays who adheres rigidly to the course laid down. I have in mind some adventurous teachers who wandered out of the beaten way, and who are now wandering outside the folds of the profession. Besides, the subject is not one that can be treated in a meandering way, but requires definite time, place, and course of study.

In view of the shortening of the English course, by the omission of Grammar, it would be well if the authorities could see if it were possible to give us one hour a week in this work; but I would prefer to give up one lesson in Poetical Literature for this. It would be such a material assistance to the student in that close word by word analysis of a poem; it would unfold to him that wonderful power that lies within words. He would perceive for himself those great processes which are continually going on in the language. No study is better calculated to develop student research than this; none of being treated in a more highly educative manner. It is likely to arouse habits of investigation that should be characteristic of the good student, and it can be treated as a means of mental discipline by collection of details, generalization, exception, and counteracting forces, and by subtle discriminations.

There are some phases of the work that the American commissioners think not suitable for High School work, viz., the history of sound change as exemplified in derivation, word composition, and inflections, nor illustrations of modern syntax by the syntax of periods in the language with which the students are not familiar. There are some part of the work which they would take up under the following heads:—

History and Geography of the English speaking people, so far as they illustrate the development of the English language. This, I consider, as a most important part in a course in English. We are deeply interested in the origin and growth of our constitution, social reforms, etc., and are we to neglect the origin of our language and all the

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various influences that affected it during its history? The importance of the one can be shown as easily as the importance of the other. Our language is a curiosity in its wonderful capabilities, and would furnish an excellent field for investigation. We have Keltic, Danish, Norman French, Italian, Spanish, Dutch, Portuguese, Latin, and Greek influences on grammar, vocabulary, word-formation, and sound. The recognition of the various powers and capabilities of our language belongs to Rhetoric lessons, and the philological investigations as to the origin of these qualities should supplement this. There is one danger in regard to its educative value, which we find also in History, in which the teacher tells too much and loads his students down with a mass of material in notes. The Prologue to the Canterbury Tales afforded an admirable field for this accurate, student-like examination of influences and principles at work in our language. This could be carried on in the same way that the botanist performs his work-selection, discrimination, and classification. The limit for this work would be difficult to fix, but the first twenty pages of the High School Grammar would be suitable. A more extended work suited to our Canadian schools, would have been already prepared if the teachers could have been assured that there was an earnest endeavor to have this part of our course retained. It has been on the course for some time, but it has been practically a dead letter, as no examination questions have been based upon it. It is surely as important as the everlasting grinding on Grimm's Law and Presentive and Symbolic words.

"Though we do not recommend any study of details in the historical development of English spelling, we think it essential that every High School scholar should possess a clear idea of the general causes which have given English the peculiar value of its vowel symbols, and made them essentially different from the system of other languages. Such study would prevent, for example, acquiescence in the common error of the vowels in *rid* and *ride* as the short and the long of the same sound." In addition to this brief study of the vowels could also be taken up the value some consonant symbols received through the Norman occupation; also an examination and comparison of our symbols with reference to those of purely phonetic spelling.

With the next section I am in full accord, and I shall quote. "The historical study of inflections and word-compositions should not be included in this scheme. But some elementary treatment of prefixes and suffixes and of word-composition may come in incidentally. The purpose of including it, however, is rather to illustrate principles of historical development than to acquaint the pupil with a body of

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details." This subject could be carried on to an alarming extent, but even some prefixes and suffixes would be valuable to students in understanding the language. Some of us can perhaps remember a time when these were taken up in the old spelling-book, and they were undoubtedly of benefit to us in the comprehension of the meaning of words. They also illustrate certain 'aws that are in operation with regard to the forms of words.

The American commissioners would not have this subject pursued as independent, but would include it in the systematic treatment of the history of the language. The extent to which the sources of English words can be carried in any school or class will depend on the acquaintance the pupils possess with Latin, French or German. Our examiners sometimes forget that there are options with regard to these languages, in the Senior Leaving Examination, as they expected pupils last year to have a large German vocabulary with which to answer the question on Grimm's Law. The commissioners further report that the elements of the English vocabulary should be so pursued as to illustrate the political, social, intellectual, and religious development of the English people; and the knowledge thus obtained will be profitable to youth only in proportion as it links itself with other knowledge derived from their general reading or from their other school work. This looks like a more difficult task to perform. It is to be treated rather as an incidental, but in the historic treatment of the language it will surely find its place. With the history of the language-the position of the Keltic element, the Roman influence, the Norman conquest, the position of the Saxon, the revival of classical learning, the student may easily get a comprehensive idea of the sources of English. It would never do to attempt the subject in literature lessons as was formerly done, and it would lead to no generalization and would load the student down with a mass of isolated facts.

With regard to composition, the conference doubts the wisdom of requiring for admission to college set essays (e.g., on books prescribed), essays whose chief purpose is to test the pupil's ability to write English. It believes that there are serious theoretical and practical objections to estimating a student's power to write a language on the basis of a theme composed not for the sake of expounding what he thinks and knows, but merely for the sake of showing his ability to write.

Therefore, as long as the formal essay remains a part of the admission examination, it is recommended that questions on topics of literary history and criticism or on passages cited from prescribed work be set as alternatives. These passages or topics should be such

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The wording of this recommendation of the conference is vague. It perceives that there are grave objections to be offered to a system that is in vogue in Ontario, yet it recommends subjects on topics of literary history and criticism of the work prescribed. It is an easy matter for a teacher to collect all the important facts in the careers of Varney, Leicester, Elizabeth, the revelries at Kenilworth, to give the pupils a plan for these compositions, to show what incidents to select, and what arrangement they should come in, and then have them write on the likely subject four or five times during the year. Here the teacher leaves nothing for the pupil to do but to remember some commended phrases and passages in previous essays, and marks are awarded to these students on the same plan as to those who have taken a foreign subject and treated it in an independent manner, exhibiting their own judgment, their own reasoning, observation, and general information, with no authority on words and phrases but their own good taste. The recommendation of the commissioners on subjects of literary history and criticism involves all the evils I have outlined. But are we not more likely to develop thinkers in this way than in the other? Are we not sure to remove parrot-like reiterations of teachers' words?

These difficulties can be partially overcome by giving part of the marks for the composition exhibited on other papers, such as History and Literature. We do so now with regard to one question in Literature, but the examination could be carried on with a double set of marks in these two subjects, by means of which half of the marks could be given in this way, and the other half by the formal set essay. Then we would certainly have a means of testing his ability to write clearly and concisely, and would prevent so many of those interminable essays which cover everything in the hope that the student may strike the right answer. In these subjects we sometimes give the same marks to two students, one of whom has written twenty lines and the other only five. The facts are all in both answers, but the one has not written "so clearly and concisely " as the conference would desire. I am, however, not prepared to urge that this should be the only form of composition test, as terseness may be too great in some forms of composition, and examinations could not cover all the fields embraced by this subject. The set subject or formal essay should be one that would call forth the student's powers not usually exhibited in answering questions.

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The commissioners cast the suspicion that a great deal of formal essay writing has been "merely for the purpose of showing his ability to write." We cannot conceive of our examiners marking as excellent an essay, which has no other recommendation than melodious phrases and graceful pictures, without strong thoughts and methodical comprehension of ideas. The thought should be an important consideration in an essay, but good ideas may be put in clumsy sentences, harsh sounding combinations, without the least coloring of imagination. Weak thought can never become impressive by rhetorical rules, for it surely ends in bombast.

This subject is an all important one, and deserves a more important position on the curriculum. "The more I think of it," says Ruskin, "the more I find the conclusion impressed upon me, that the greatest thing a human soul ever does in this world is to see something and to tell what it sees in a plain way." In no other subject has the student such great opportunity, as it calls forth his originality and all faculties of the mind, and the limit for improvement may reach even to Macaulay and De Quincey.

The subject of Rhetoric seems to be estimated now in its true The conference would have the principles of Rhetoric position. studied for one hour a week, during the last two years, and incidentally during the previous, but would not allow any examination in it as an independent subject. Our authorities are acting wisely in this matter, but have made no provision for Prose Literature at all on the curriculum. This I feel to be a decided want, but I am not clear as to the proper methods of study and examination. We have lately had put into our hands an admirable book by Professor Alexander and Mr. Libby, in which a systematic guidance is given to pupils in the course of composition work. The editors understand the relationship that Rhetoric bears to composition, and the following of this graded series would obviate the haphazard method of providing subjects. The study of one class of models should precede a composition illustrating these principles. The composition would be short, but would have to be thorough, and the teacher would be able to read through all, or nearly all, of their efforts. It would be well if our examiners would hitherto criticise and note excellences where the student has succeeded in following some good model, and subjects should be set that would require a knowledge of the principles laid down therein. But this book consists only of fragments, and can never supersede the study of a long, connected prose work.

The conference is of the opinion, that in the hands of any but a

highly intelligent teacher exercises in the correction of bad English may do more harm than good. It is too commonly supposed that anyone who has the requirements for a High School teacher's certificate is competent to teach Junior English. On the other hand, their work may be as harmful as in giving the first principles of French and German pronunciation. No subject requires more culture, more extensive reading, more good taste and judgment, else we shall have an uniformity of writing in a stilted, unnatural expression, a pedantic attention to details, and a crushing out of all originality and individuality.

Another feature of the new programme is important to teachers at this juncture. It is the question of time to be allotted to our department. We have usually three periods of thirty-five minutes for Literature and one for supplementary Reading, while there are three for Grammar. Now the Grammar has been taken from the English course. Are we to have the additional time for English Literature? I believe not. It is the intention not to give the time taken from Mathematics and English by dropping Arithmetic and Grammar to those departments from which these subjects have been taken. This time goes to increase the influence of other departments in a preponderating degree:

Our Association should make a vigorous protest against the position in which we are placed. The American commissioners feel that we should have five hours a week for our subjects, and that the relative importance of English among other requirements for admission to College is in the proportion of one in six. We are not receiving justice in our course, and it is the duty of this section to request that it be granted.

The conference recommends that the history of English Literature should be read incidentally in connection with the pupil's study of particular authors and works; the mechanical use of manuals in literature should be avoided and the committing to memory of names and dates should not be mistaken for culture. In the fourth year, however, an attempt may be made, by means of lectures or otherwise, to give the pupil a view of our literature as a whole and to acquaint him with the relations between periods. This instruction should accompany, not supersede, a chronologically arranged sequence of authors. In connection with it a syllabus or brief primer may be used.

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cautions accordingly. There is a danger of the history of literature approaching the culture we received in this respect in our University, where we learned about the lives and works of obscure German and Italian authors with whom it was impossible to have a real acquaintance. Now our authorities have so carefully guarded against Scylla as to drop into Charybdis. Our students go through our Collegiate Institutes, and they have the most confused ideas of the relationship between the different periods of literature. They are unable to detect causes and results of certain turns of thought and expression in consequence of the pell-mell arrangement of the works studied. By giving works to our primary students that illustrate the character of the modern period in literature-Longfellow, Bryant, Swinburne, Dobson, Tennyson-even some of Browning and Matthew Arnold-we could give the students an introduction to our modern poetry. For our Junior Leaving and Matriculation Classes, we could proceed to Coleridge, Wordsworth, Scott, Keats, Byron, Shelley, Gray or Cowper, changing the course each year as at present. Then for honor matriculation, we could proceed to Milton, Shakespeare, and Chaucer, and we could have all our suplementary reading ranged round the period of writers that were then under study. I would not do anything with Primaries with regard to the history of literature; but by the time they take up Junior Leaving work, they would be ready to mark influences in one period, and trace them into the period which they have already studied. By the time they had completed their full course in the Collegiate Institute, they would have a general, though possibly an inaccurate knowledge of the history of the different literary periods.

A DEVELOPMENT STUDY IN FRENCH TRAGIC DRAMA: CORNEILLE—HUGO.

J. N. DALES, M.A., KINGSTON.

It is not the intention of the present paper to enter into an exhaustive and detailed consideration of the successive stages of development of the French Tragic Drama, but rather to contribute something in the way of a development study from Corneille to Hugo, prefacing the same by a brief reference to the changes characterizing its evolution from the Greek tragedy, through the Latin and to the French of the Corneille school. That this is a sufficiently important field is manifest from the fact that French tragedy when one considers the form and conception which constituted it in the mind of the French play writer, is so entirely a product of its time and bears so indelibly stamped upon its face the scars of national political struggles, that its history is less one of literary change than slow historical evolution.

Saintsbury describes French tragedy as a slavish imitation of a foreign model. It is to Seneca or to the plays usually ascribed to him, that this writer refers. The Pléiade, however, had made any other course well nigh impossible. So closely had the latter followed classical models, that no one yet dared attempt on the French stage a free and unfettered representation of human character and action in all the naturalness of its complexity and diversity. Who then is Seneca the law-giver, whose yoke is borne so patiently and with so much satisfaction? So important a writer as Moulton, regards his tragedies as a sort of half-way house between ancient and modern drama.

The most cursory view of one of his plays, reveals its kinship to the former. In what is perhaps his best known work, The Daughters of Troy, there are, however, striking differences from the work of Euripides bearing the same name. In the Latin play, which by the way, was not intended for acting, and hence not the best of models, the prologue has disappeared. And as we turn over its pages, we discover that it is not like the Greek Tragedy, one continuous poem or scene, but is broken up into five "acts." The latter, of course, is the direct result of the change from the stage to written literature, since the chorus could no longer preserve its continuous personality before the spectators. Its binding, unifying effect is gone, and we even suspect an inconsistency of local suggestions in various places. The cho number of simply hav chorus, a g plays of S and its ju opposing fa sides of th breaking de

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to the ters of Eurie way, ls, the scover e, but result thorus ators. tency The chorus had been the main bond of unity holding together a number of isolated stories. A longer tragedy and more stories would simply have involved to a Greek mind participation on the part of the chorus, a greater number of times. But it would seem that in the plays of Seneca, a body of actors have gradually displaced this chorus and its judicial functions. This is seen in his Octavia, where the opposing factions in a court struggle each have their choruses, and both sides of the story are separately developed at some risk, we fear, of breaking down the old classical idea of unity of action.

The influence of rhetoric too at that age had a dedramatizing effect on unity of action. Though more or less thinly veiled, there was an evident tendency to rhetorical ornament, for which epic narrative gave abundant opportunity. In short, tragedy had now become little more than an artificial form given to a number of scenes, epic and lyric combined, with a stray infusion of rhetoric.

Such were the most prominent features of the Senecan model, so closely followed by the classical writers of France. We have already hinted at its lack of adaptability for stage presentation, but Corneille never faltered as he wrote down line after line of his long, declamatory passages and scenes, which were fortunately redeemed at intervals by wonderful bursts of poetry in his own inimitable style. Like the other writers of the French classical school, he made little attempt to mirror nature. That would have necessitated a multiplication of characters, perhaps a triplication of plot, and a complete disregard of established form and usage. Corneille accepted the doubtful legacy which dramatic precedent bequeathed to him none too willingly. Indeed his critiques on "le Poème Dramatique et les Trois Unités" show him to be possessed of much judicial candor. He says in the former : "We must observe the unity of action, the unity of time, and the unity of place." No one doubts that; but he continues, "there is no little difficulty in knowing what this unity of action is, and how far the unity of time and place may be extended." This is the natural difficulty of an author who is trying to follow his own interpretation of Aristotle's principle, that a subject must be treated according to the probable and necessary, and at the same time honestly attempting to be true to the dramatic laws laid down by his predecessors. Regretting that Aristotle had not expressed himself more clearly concerning the dramatic properties, he concludes that such explanation is now necessary, and himself lays down theatrical laws which in his opinion should govern all play writers. His genius, however, was a better guide than his rules, and we find him with the inevitableness of a true poet trans-

gressing many of the maxims he had himself laid down as fundamental. In his Horace he permits the character, which gives his name to the play, to kill his sister, an inexcusable defect in the unity of the action. Indeed in this play there seem to be three actions—the duel, the murder of Camille, which takes place without any preparation, and the judgment scene. This surely is an evidence that, in spite of all his reverence for classical usages, he was, in spite of himself, forced by his poetic instincts to express himself naturally at times. Whenever possible he attempted to evade harrassing limitations by emphasizing some moral lesson. Love-making scenes he permits only, as he says himself, because they serve as a foundation for those other interests and passions which alone are really truly tragical.

But if Corneille was not quite true to classical traditions, his rival Racine was not more so. Like most play writers, a paramount consideration with the latter was that a play should "draw well." We might say of his work that it supplements but does not outshine his older contemporary. His characters are rather types than people of flesh and blood, and though there is more action and more attempt to adapt the usages of the old school to the requirements of the playgoing public, one misses the lofty moral spirit which is so confident of its position and authority that it disdains any attempt at adaptation, and maintains its position by sheer force of its genius.

In both writers their adherence to classical traditions of unity was but the natural obedience they willingly gave to an authority which as yet no one had even dreamed of questioning. And though the elevation of tone is real, it is far from attaining the heights of interest reached by the Greek drama, whose characters possessed the added interest given by their connection with their national religion.

Passing over minor writers, some of whom entered a vigorous protest against this reverence for ancient models, we come to a writer, who, if we would but believe, gave a new impulse to French drama. But his innovations represented no essential advance in art. He introduced one partially new feature, that of didactic teaching, though very artfully disguised, but it would seem that he often prostitutes it by reflecting the aspirations of the people around him. He gives us fine political and social sentiments, scorching invectives against tyranny and fanaticism; but after all, he rather augmented the tendency to rhetorical effect, which was every day binding more strongly, if not, indeed, paralyzing true dramatic life. In character where French tragedy was weakest, according to an eminent authority, he added nothing, nor even in diction where it was strongest. For we can hardly ment than

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After these writers had passed away, the leaven of a liberal spirit manifested itself more freely and developed sufficiently to call forth an occasional protest, but from this point the history of the French drama becomes that of a conflict between an enfeebled artistic school and what is hardly to be dignified by the name of a school at all. We have among these Dumas Fils and Augier, who with others of more or less note, strove to preserve for the old time principles of tragic drama their place of honor, but the effort was in vain. There must needs be a new and powerful spirit, a dictator, who could by his genius establish new principles which would be accepted instead of the old maxims. Such a one was Victor Hugo, the central figure henceforth in the struggle between the vested rights of the old and the earnest spirit of the new.

The great conflict, moreover, which agitated the literary world of France stood in essential connection with the social and political questions of the time. Hugo, himself, says, "When one breaks ground in a question of art the first blow of the pick lays open literary problems; the second, social problems." Under the fiercely debated questions of the classic and romantic in art lay really the allabsorbing question as to the extent of the influence which the many new democratic elements in the nation were to be allowed to have not only on art and literature, but on the life of the people. Thus it was but natural, that the whole weight of conservative opinion in politics ranged itself on the side of the conservative in literature, and in consequence this literary contest was carried on with all the heat and excitement of a political struggle.

There was the Academy with all the prestige of its authority to be met and silenced. It was the sworn foe of innovators, for was it not the guardian of the French language and literature jealously watching to preserve its purity. The young French writers of the nineteenth century found in their hands a language bequeathed to them by the great men of the eighteenth century, Voltaire and the Encyclopædists. At their hands it had undergone a process which tended to banish words which carry color and sentiment. For the philosopher it was a fine and flexible instrument, but it was not delicate or sensitive enough for the poet. In short, eighteenth century language was the natural vehicle of the eighteenth century spirit. But very different was the spirit of the age which followed. The roll of the drum and the rumble of cannon, had been incessantly heard throughout the length and breadth of France for a quarter of a century. War and revolutions with the enthusiasm and sufferings which always accompany them, had stirred to their very depths the hearts of men. From the troublous times of the republic and the empire, France emerged with a changed and deeper spirit, one which naturally sought out another language to express itself.

In this respect the first innovator was, perhaps, Chateaubriand. The fine-scented critics who paid their vows to eighteenth century traditions, naturally had an invincible distaste for a writer who made Atala say of her lover that "he is beautiful as the desert with all its flowers and all its breezes;" and spoke of the moon as "spreading through the woods the great secret of melancholy, which she loves to reveal to the ancient oaks and to the antique coasts of the seas."

But the Academy were soon to be startled by a fresh literary movement more radical and more formidable. The new note sounded by Lamartine in his "Meditations" had shown that the development in literature had reached the self-conscious stage. There was accordingly a marshalling of forces on the part of all those in the various departments of literature and art whose sympathies were with the new movement. In the forefront of this motley crowd of innovators was the famous Cénacle-a literary club of which Victor Hugo, de Vigny and others were members. During the summer evenings of 1827 a curious group of young artists, journalists and poets were in the habit of assembling at the gardens of La mère Saquet to discuss familiarly questions of art and literature. They felt as both Schlegel and Voltaire had remarked, that there were many things which could not be mentioned at all in French poetry, and consequently they ransacked early French literature for all sorts of suitable terms and analogies, and imparted to them a boldness of expression and an elevation of thought which were quite new.

A mongst those who protested most vigorously and uncompromisingly against eighteenth century limitations was Hugo. In the third edition of his Odes et Ballades he says that it seems to him that what is really true and beautiful is everywhere true and beautiful; what is dramatic in a novel will be dramatic on the stage; that finally and always, the only true distinction in works of art is that of the good and the bad. It will thus be seen that the drama of Hugo was to exhibit other changes than those connected with the unities.

The young leader of the romanticists is not contented, however, with simply removing the restrictions of the old critical school, but he boldly strikes out a theory for himself. What might be termed the manifesto preface wl claims that In the anc spirit it pla speare is th great write

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r, with but he ned the manifesto of the new school, appears in a famous and comprehensive preface which Hugo published with the drama of "Cromwell." He claims that art should recognize a new element, that of the grotesque. In the ancients he says this is hidden and timid; but in the modern spirit it plays a roll of immense importance. Of this element Shakespeare is the highest expression of the English genius. Indeed all our great writers place the grotesque side by side with the sublime.

"Cromwell," however, was found unsuitable for public representation, and the public contest which was to decide between the old and the new was deferred for about two years. At the end of this period Hernani was completed, and the royal permission given for its representation on the stage. One day in February, 1830, people passing along the Rue de Richelieu were astonished to see assembled early in the afternoon at the door of the Théâtre Français, hundreds of strange looking youths, longhaired, long-bearded, with fantastic moustaches and dressed in every sort of style except that which was customary. Noticeably prominent in their attire were cloaks, doublets and various articles of clothing characterstically Spanish. These young fellows were the substitutes for the professional claqueurs-men regularly organized and paid to make applause. Money could not induce the latter to applaud Hernani since it was full of protests and even challenges to the old time tragedy. Amidst considerable applause and not a little adverse criticism the play proceeded, but when the curtain fell for the last time Hugo's friends felt that they had won the victory.

In the dramas which followed "Hernani" the development of Hugo's social ideas and his employment of the grotesque with the sublime become marked features. Furthermore to his own satisfaction, at least, he developed and followed out his own conception of dramatic unity. There was henceforth to be but one unity, that of action, and notwithstanding Ponsard's Lucrèce, which was modelled somewhat on the severer style of the old French dramatists and intended as a protest against the romantic idea, the victory of the latter was complete. Henceforth the poet was to be free and unfettered ; there were to be no limitations nor restrictions in the matter of literary expressions and but few in dramatic propriety. In a word the French tragedy drama was divested of its slavish reverence for the classical models, and was thrust out upon the boundless and inviting expanse of poetic instinct.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING IN HIGH SCHOOLS—AN ABSTRACT.

WILLIAM PAKENHAM, B.A., BROCKVILLE.

This conference will consider the subject of Supplementary Reading under two heads: (a) English, (b) French and German. Supplementary Reading in English now holds a definite and important position upon High School courses of study. Our duty is not to discuss whether it merits this position or not; rather shall we consider how best to use supplementary work in English as an educative force.

Browning, according to Corson, finds three diverse and distinct powers in man: (a) A purely external function—his power of actingor doing—a power which is responsible for the sum total of a man's deeds.

- (b) A purely intellectual function—his knowing power.

(c) Both the *doing* and *knowing* powers of man are but reflected forms of what he really *is*; are faithful, though by no means complete reproductions of the absolute being within him. The aim of education is not *directly* and *immediately* to make the man a noble actor or worker, not to create a Casaubon or a Gradgrind; rather is it to develop, adjust and correct this absolute and essential being.

Literature, especially Supplementary Reading in English Literature, will develop this "being," will, in other words, mould the absolute character of the man. The age calls for earnest, thoughtful, strenuous characters. Individual happiness, national welfare, the progress, even the survival of the race, depend upon the existence of such characters. An all-devouring enthusiasm for reading provides the appetite; the noblest and purest thoughts of great writers, the food that such character-shaping demands.

Supplementary work in English Literature should make readers of all students. A race of intelligent readers

(a) Would not be an unpractical race of dreamers unless the Platos, Shakespeares and Goethes are dreamers.

(b) Would keep alive in man the ideal type of existence.

(c) Would create a race of leaders as well as thinkers.

In supplementary work in English Literature then the teacher should keep in view two or three things :

I. If character-shaping be his object, the organizing and spiritualizing of the thought, his means, he shall read none but the masterpieces. II. The authors ar judgment i III. Stu —must kn direct train tion. The lectual elem

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II. The pupil's pleasure is to be considered, he is to feel no restraint, authors are to be friends, profit comes from the pleasure, taste and judgment improve with the exercise of them.

III. Students are to respond to the spiritual content of the selection —must know it as a matter of inner consciousness. Here shall be no direct training in the use of words, in expression, in English composition. The indefinite spiritual element is sought; the definite intellectual element is disregarded.

THE SELECTING OF MASTERPIECES.

One must consider here the cost of a text, its form, its accessibility. Both poetry and prose shall be read, but poetry shall be preferred because of cost, accessibility, compactness. It is often more interesting; popular tastes in the reading of poetry need stimulating and rectifying; above all, we shall read poetry because, from its definition as a criticism of life, it will better develop, mould and adjust the absolute being within us.

What shall guide one in selecting his class work from the wealth of poetic literature within reach?

(1) One should enter upon the year's work with a definite course and aim, and while varying the work from short to long extracts, from lyrics to ballads, from dramas to monologues, even from prose to poetry, should never lose sight of that aim. The work should not be desultory in character.

(2) Certainly one should not forget the students' pleasure, nor yet(3) should the teacher be guided by the present rage for the quantity rather than the quality of the reading.(4) Remembering his purpose, he should never notice the ephemeral products of any age.

THE TEACHER'S METHODS.

(1) Details, externals, the technique of a work must be disregarded, especially with the junior students. The selection is to be treated as an organic whole with no superfluous elements, and as having a certain spiritual content.

(2) The poem should be looked upon as an absolute product—of no particular age, place or environment.

(3) To preserve the indefinite spiritual element, there should be little or no wearisome drill, paraphrazing, essay work, examination, etc.

(4) The teacher should maintain in his treatment of the work a high standard of thought and expression. The beauty of the masterpiece must not be rudely marred.

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(5) Noble images and thoughts should be stored up in the pupils' minds as standards for future criticism, and as food for future spiritual growth.

THE TEACHER.

(a) Should be the English master of the school.

(b) Should possess a kindly, glowing, inspiring enthusiasm.

(c) Should carefully prepare his work that he may give skilfully such explanations as are needed, make such references or quotations as may be suggestive ; that he may the better co-ordinate and correlate the sight-work with the regular English course ; that he may himself feel the author's shaping or informing spirit, and that he may the more effectively read the selection. And the selection may be read at home as a species of task ; in class, silently ; by the pupils, aloud ; by the teacher. The best plan, it seems, would be by teacher or particular students. In either case there should be careful and thoughtful preparation. Too much stress cannot be laid upon the choice of readers and the character of the reading.

Good reading does effectively what explanations, necessarily imperfect, may never do—it gives vivid conceptions of the thought and movement of the poem.

It would be well for the English masters to consider, interested as they are in developing a general enthusiasm for thoughtful reading, their pupils' relations to the school and local libraries; and their own personal influences over the reading habits of their towns—welldirected efforts will increase the usefulness of the former and by public readings, talks or lectures, they may greatly enlarge the extent of the latter. THE FU

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THE FUNCTION OF ENGLISH POETRY IN THE HIGH SCHOOL.

MISS GERTRUDE LAWLER, M.A., TORONTO.

"Poetry is itself a thing of God; He made his prophets poets, and the more We feel of poesie do we become Like God in love and power-undermakers."

I have followed with considerable interest some of the many learned discussions that have risen, have fallen, and have decayed, concerning the relative educational importance of the various subjects on our High School curriculum. While sympathetically hearing a brother teacher dolefully lament that Arithmetic genius was discounted in favor of Algebraic talent, or that Mathematical studies were cramped, owing to heavy pressure from Science and Classics; while wonderingly listening to an enthusiastic friend, as he told in winged words of the absolute necessity of instructing the growing youth in the universal truths of nature; while delightfully attending to the artless, artistic, sesthetic admirer of Greek and Latin, as he faultlessly demonstrated the unique mental effects of Homer and of Virgil, on the much crammed, but not, therefore, more educated child of this most enlightened age; while admiringly smiling, as I heard the sweet sounds of der, die, das, or of j'ai, tu as, il a, lisped by pretty girls and gallant boys; while carefully noting that the art of recording, in a systematic manner, the transactions of merchants, traders, and other persons engaged in pursuits connected with money, and that the art of representing any object by means of lines circumscribing its boundaries, and the art of delineating on a plane surface, near and distant objects, as they appear to the eye, from any given distance, were attracting a great deal of attention, due, perhaps, to the mercantile spirit of our busy, bustling century ; could I help blissfully thinking, that while with regard to the various subjects of High School study, much might be said on all sides, nevertheless among English-speaking people, among patriotic Canadians, among educated, broad-cultured Torontonians, the study of English Poetical Literature was still universally recognized as a means of educating the emotional, the intellectual, and the æsthetic side of our nature ? Am I not right in concluding that every zealous mathematician, every painstaking natural philosopher, every cultured Greek, every devoted admirer of French and German, every busy commercial

master, wishes to have all pupils instructed in English verse? All believe with Coleridge that "Poetry is the blossom and the fragrance of all human knowledge, human thoughts, human passions, emotion, language"; and with Leigh Hunt, "Poetry is the breath of beauty flowing around the spiritual world, as the winds that wake up the flowers do about the material."

It is still a fact that a nation's greatness is measured by its literature; and it is readily granted that the chief kind of literature is poetry. Now, if my memory serves me properly, in Mathematics, a function is defined as a quantity so connected with another that no change can be made in the latter, without producing a corresponding change in the former. It follows that Poetical Literature is the function of every nation. What is true of the nation, is in this case true of the individual. The function, the power of English Poetry in our High Schools, is to make our boys great men, our girls great women, by cheering, by refining, by ennobling. I do not claim that a student's greatness is measured by his love of English Classic Poetry, but heartily agree with Van Dyke: "I had rather have my children grow up, thinking that the earth is flat, and that light is a liquid, than have them grow up without a love for true poetry."

In order to explain this function of English Poetry in our High Schools, let us make a four-fold division of High School pupils: First, those below the Primary; Second, the Primary Form; Third, the Junior Leaving and Pass Matriculation Form; Fourth, the Senior Leaving and Honor Matriculation Form.

The poetry studied by the first division, consists of selections from the High School Reader, and of selections chosen by the teacher. As all tastes are not alike, it would be difficult, if not impossible, to collect such a number of English gems as would please every teacher and every pupil—for, be it gratefully recorded, that every teacher is original enough to be different from all others. What is true of the teacher, is in this case, true of the pupil—for teachers are but pupils of a supposed larger growth; of course, mental growth.

The High School Reader contains a good suggestive selection that is easily supplemented as taste directs, and as opportunity presents itself; hence it is a pleasure to know that as all the junior classes are differently constituted—that is, consist of different boys and of different girls, guided by different teachers, the supplemental work is likely not the same.

In the junior form, we find that the boys prefer the poems that have to do with wars; the girls show a marked liking for interesting narrations a are reverse instrument. may strike oftener, the to soul, and

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poems that interesting narrations and picturesque descriptions. Yet, very often these likings are reversed. Indeed, each pupil is like a note of a new musical instrument. You may succeed in striking several notes together; you may strike one at a time; the aim is to strike all at some time, and the oftener, the better. Then is heard the echo that will "roll from soul to soul, and grow forever and forever."

We feel sure that when a child is taught to see good actions, good principles, good morals, and whether in the corn-field, the daisied-field, or the battle-field; in the cottage, the residence, or the palace; in the ploughman, the esquire, or the lord—he will admire, will applaud, will imitate, in his own scale. You watch him translate the lesson to suit his own circumstances, when he tells you what he thinks, what he would do. You see him become a part of all that he meets.

In a word, you have given the child an intellectual theorem to demonstrate, or an intellectual problem to solve; you have, from the nature of the theorem or problem, aroused his emotions, his human feelings; you have presented the question in an æsthetic form, and have stimulated his sense of the beautiful. What would you more?

You believe that true poets are "God's prophets of the Beautiful." Could we not present to our junior class, its specimens of the Beautiful in a more æsthetic form than in homely brown-covered books, dubbed High School Readers—not even Poetic Literatures? Why not have our classic poems printed on good paper, and bound in an attractive cover? Then, with Disraeli, one might say :

> "Object of delicious pleasures ! You my eyes rejoicing please, You my hands in rapture seize."

As it is, when asking for the High School Reader for a Literature Lesson, I say, "Let us take our Poetic Literatures." Mere sentiment, you may, perhaps, conclude : but then I smile at the well-known French author as he whispers : "All the reasonings of men are not worth one sentiment of women."

Yet another sentiment, to which I beg to give expression. Every High School teacher, except the teacher of English Poetical Literature —here, he is always excepted—is wont to demand those same browncovered High School Readers, whenever an imposition is to be given. What fate impels the choice of poetic selections? Does the child love the rod that punishes even if that rod be of gold? If familiarity with a poem ever breeds contempt for it, it must inevitably be, when that familiarity is acquired, by an hour's irksome, fruitless scribbling while companions are with the tennis-racket or the foot-ball. The longer the

poem, the greater the contempt. The pupil is not in the humor to help Horatius keep the bridge, or to understand by what right Shylock claims the pound of flesh : he prefers to croak with the raven—Nevermore ! We agree that "the object of punishment is prevention from evil; it can never be made impulsive to good." Here assuredly, "correction lieth in those hands which made the fault."

Let me conclude with three pleasures known to the teacher of Poetic Literature in the junior work;—the pleasure experienced when told of poems read by pupils outside of school work; the pleasure of always having the memorization of extracts done voluntarily; the pleasure in examining what the world calls, spring poetry. It often springs from the heart.

The brown-covered High School Reader contains the selected course for candidates for the Primary Departmental Examination. A pupil sometimes says—"The English Poetical Literature is still the same." There is evinced a feeling of monotony. I have heard more than one teacher say, "I do not blame the pupil." Is it not true that if the teacher does not weary of the pcems—verily, weak humanity wearies of even the sweetest songs—the pupils will not weary, whatever the feelings expressed at the beginning of the session? Is not Carlyle right? "If time is precious, no book that will not improve by repeated readings deserves to be read at all." It seems best not to specialize too early in one's course. It is surely better to know a little of the best of several authors, than a little more of only one.

By the Primary Examination, the first official test is given to the pupil's work. This the pupil knows. He has grown a year or two years; his thoughts, his joys, his cares, have grown; the poems have grown with him. They are still the same tunes, but with different tones. The teacher sets the tones. It used to be considered necessary to have the same chorus for every poem-"Look out for the examiners!" I have heard that some teachers sang the chorus with might and main. Now, our pupils learn their poems, think them, feel them, act them. They memorize just what they like. Their little tastes are pure. Love of the work is our only impetus. At the end of the school year they tell the examiners what is asked, and usually please. I may say plainly, I have never taught one lesson that pandered to an examiner's taste. Teach, and never think of examiners as dreaded monsters. Examiners are merely questioners. Fellow teachers, the fever of examinations is too often contracted by teachers and is then caught by pupils.

At Christmas time, of 1894, I had a Poetical Examination in a

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Primary Form, and asked the question: "Do you like the study of Poetry? Tell briefly, why or why not." Let me give you a sample of the replies; that I might not select partially, I chose at random, yet I need not conceal the fact that all answered affirmatively.

This from a boy:—"Yes, I like the study of Poetry because it brings before my mind in a way that neither prose, nor painting, nor music, nor aught I know can, the beauty and grandeur of Nature. It tells sweet tales of love, it draws sweet pictures of characters of good men and women, and fills a man with that emotion and strength which says, I will rise and become better and stronger."

This from a pupil with less power of expression :—" I like the study of Poetry because it makes me think. The most of Poetry leads me to higher thoughts. Poetry is a fine study : the more you know of it, the more you want to know."

Another :—" I like the study of Poetry because it teaches truth and points out evil; so that by knowing what and where the evil is, we may avoid it. Also, it appeals to the feelings and affords more food for thought than any other single subject. I think that the study of Poetry advances a man farther in wisdom than any other study except History."

In case any of my hearers agree with the last statement, I leave all to argue it with Plato, who writes: "Poetry comes nearer the vital truth than does History."

I have a good many of such answers, and with these testimonies, may we not say to the learned critic that writes in the Educational Journal of March 15, 1895, and who asserts that in the High Schools of the United States, "Literature—I hate it," sums up the judgment of too many boys and girls in this matter, such a hatred is unknown in our Canadian High Schools ?

In the Junior Leaving and Pass Matriculation Form, there is a feeling of importance on the first morning after the summer holidays, when is announced the Poet whose work is to be of particular study. There is magic in the name of Scott, Wordsworth, Longfellow, Tennyson. It is as though a renowned personage,—and, at the same time, a friend, was come to spend a year, and promised to tell throughout the whole year of glad tidings.

We agree that the teachers and the pupils of Ontario are indebted to those learned annotators that have prepared special editions of particular authors for the Junior Leaving and Pass Matriculation students. I should like to express the wish that future annotators provide as dainty a volume as that 1895 deep-blue, gilt-stamped edition of Tennyson's poems.

There is only one objection that I am obliged to make to our school editions: they do not contain all the poems that I should like to place before the pupil. When the pupil unaided by the teacher would read more—our Olivers always ask for more—the selected edition is found wanting. I have never yet been accused of extravagance, when, in these days of cheap books, I have asked that each pupil provide himself with a complete edition of the author.

The annotated edition certainly provides valuable material, which the pupils and the teachers appreciate, I hope proportionately to the annotator's expenditure of time and energy. If a lexicographer, as Dr. Johnson put it, is a harmless, necessary drudge, much more so is the annotator of school classics, for his is solely a work of love. If he does not love the poet, it is not often that chill penary forces the work.

The teacher's position is not the same: the author is now a favorite, now the favorite, and now not valued. Well, there is a recognized authority to choose the poet for study. It is inevitable that the works chosen are classic, and just as inevitable that there is much good derivable from a humble, reverent study of any classic poet. Moreover, it is the pleasure, the privilege, the duty of every teacher to make his pupils see mainly only what is best, with the aim of cheering, of refining, of ennobling. Yes, "if you look on the ground, you must see dirt." As a rule, take a glance downwards to avoid puddles and mud, but otherwise keep the eyes off the ground. Here is a case of which I know; I quote from a High School pupil's letter to me :--- "We have a new teacher in Literature, and he has made me feel better; he loves Tennyson, and makes me love him, too." I suppose the "him" is Tennyson. "Our former master disliked Tennyson, and kept telling us how much better somebody else did the same thing. We did naught but grumble. How much happier we are !"

As I read that letter, I asked myself again, "Why can't we all be optimists?"

Of course, a feigned love of a poet on the teacher's part and on the pupil's part must be discountenanced. We trust that if a sufficient number of intellectual beings sees good in an author, good there is in him, even if we cannot detect it. Indeed, it hurts a man's pride to say—"I do not know." Yet that man knows that too often a dislike arises from prejudice or from ignorance. The case reminds me of Locke's words: "To be rational is so glorious a thing that two-legged creatures generally content themselves with the title." Alas and alas! some two-legged creatures are teachers. The syllogism is easily completed.

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Thinking that the members of this Association would like to know from Junior Leaving pupils, what is one function of English Poetry, at Christmas time of 1894, on a Literature paper. I asked, "What importance do you attach to the study of English Poetry in comparison to your other studies?" I choose citations from a few answers.

A girl wrote :— "Poetry plays a very important part in our studies. After working hard at a mathematical problem, how restful it is to turn to the pleasant subject of Poetry !"

A bright boy :—" In comparison with other studies, it may not be of such practical value in most walks of after life, though in oratory, whether in the pulpit, or at the bar, or in the House, it must needs be of great value. Then, it imparts a tone, a finish to one's conversation. I want to be a good conversationalist. Poetry makes me observant of little things that make life happy. Even in Mathematics it helps me, for it teaches me to think, and from one wee unobtrusive clue, to follow out a whole train of profound reasoning."

Another bright pupil:—"The importance attached to a study depends a great deal upon the use of that study to you in after life. But with regard to Poetry, it seems to me, different; for, whether one's future life lies in the realm of law, science, theology, or even in a prosaic business life, we can hardly over-estimate the value of Poetry to us. On account of its beauties of thought, its refining influences, its great moral truths, it should always hold first place."

Another boy concluded :— "Then, too, I find that the memorizing of a choice passage of my liking, helps my powers of memory in a large degree."

A girl reminded me that her aim was to be an elocutionist, and so, the study of poetry was her chief delight.

The Senior Leaving and Honor Matriculation Form is the pride of every High School and of every High School teacher. True, the pride is occasionally in proportion to the success expected at the coming examinations, but there is a nobler pride founded on the intellect of the pupils. In English Poetical Literature, the mind is concerned with Chaucer and with Shakespeare.

Chaucer has paid only a short visit to our High Schools, and next year he is not to be studied by High School pupils. It is not in place to question the wisdom of the withdrawal. It is supposable that those who have the matter in charge are acting wisely. But since we are considering the function of Poetry in the High School, it is relevant to say that Chaucer has done much to inspire. His artless simplicity, as fresh as is the month of May, has won many admirers; his picture

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gallery has been intensely amusing and suggestively instructive. But my greatest pleasure came from a boy-pupil's translation of the whole of the Prologue into good, modern English, iambic pentameter rimed couplets. Others have tried special portions with more or less success. Singing Chaucer seems to inspire with a longing to turn a verse.

It is in this highest form that a whole play of Shakespeare is minutely studied for the first time. Much special treatment depends on the nature of the play selected, but the love of the special masterpiece means the A B C of future dramatic study. When a pupil has grasped a Shakespearian unit, he is ready to graduate from our school in English Literature.

It is extremely interesting psychologically, to watch a scholar project himself by turns into each of the persons of the play, and to hear him weigh the why's and wherefore's of different actions. Provided a pupil is taught to believe that his own opinions, and deductions are to himself more valuable than are then to him valuable the remarks of, it may be, Gervinus, Hazlitt, or Dowden, it is most gratifying to listen to the various translations of persons and circumstances; to note the quick perceptions of what is extravagant or unnatural; to mark the ready appreciation of what is worthy of commendation.

One of the chief functions of this dramatic poetry is to foster originality—to make the pupil conscious of his innate strength—before he mingles with wider, greater life. The imaginary struggle—of course, as it is imaginary, it is less than the real—of different men and women, prepares in a passive, pleasurable way for what must be met in active form. There is need only to rouse that inborn strength of character.

At the beginning of a school-year, I asked the pupils of this highest form to suppose they visited our school twenty years later and were allowed to address for fifteen minutes, the pupils in attendance; to write a synopsis of the address. Thirty out of forty pupils sketched the usual, now almost trite remarks about log schoolhouses and cold rooms and cross masters. On enquiry, I found that not one of the thirty had ever been in a log schoolhouse, but older persons had been heard expatiate on the great differences between the now and the then.

Older persons are heard on many other topics that affect younger minds. The law of laziness is easy to obey. Rather than think for himself, the younger often allows the older to obtain results, which he finds an idemnity in quoting as the conclusions of the more learned. If the older were the wiser—it ought to follow, too,—still the thinking should to be done by young and old—there would not be much harm in the quotations of opinions as truths. One not because I reminded of reasons we on comput thrice ende The associa continue to —what is n —your fash

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Another somewhat antiquated notion, found at times by derival or by inheritance in our highest class, is that you cannot understand English Poetry, say Shakespeare, familiarly quoted as knowing little Latin and less Greek, or Tennyson, without a knowledge of Latin and Greek. I do not mean to argue. Yet a word. All knowledge is relative, and the more one knows of every other branch of learning, the better he understands and appreciates his special study. Each branch is a perfect part of a perfect whole-and seldom, if ever, does a mortal arrive at a correct solution of one part. Can't I taste perfectly a peach unless I know the taste of a pear ? Must I taste all species of apples, to know the taste of one species of apple? Enough ! To advance the study of our pet branch of learning, we couple it with that which seems best to advance the interest of one or of both. It is fashionable to know this or that and so the infection spreads. However, the student of English Poetry knows that by it his mind is broadened in proportion as he studies English verse and all else.

I cannot conclude this paper without expressing a wish that more adequate facilities may soon be afforded for the study and the official recognition of our own mother tongue. It is not easy to understand how one can excel in dead Classics, in live Mathematics, and be indifferent to the parent speech; how, knowing little, and caring less, concerning the habits of our language, he wishes to claim the privileges of citizenship in a British community; how, scarcely able correctly to address an envelope and to pen a letter, he can sleep at night.

We send our High School pupils to the Universities, when only the elements of our lordly language is theirs; when they have but tasted of the Pierian springs of English letters; and how gladly should we see them able to graduate in their mother tongue! This is no new striving. Listen to De Quincey :—"If there is one thing in this world that next after the flag of his country and its spotless honor, should be wholly in the eyes of a young poet,—it is the language of his country. He should spend 25

the third part of his life in studying this language, and in cultivating its total resources. He should be willing to pluck out his right eye, or to circumnavigate the globe, if by such a sacrifice, if by such an exertion, he could attain to greater purity, precision, compass, or idiomatic energy of diction." Now, a third part of one's life is surely worth a University Honor Degree.

Once more, the function of English Poetry in our High Schools is to cheer, to refine, to ennoble, to make men and women whether University degrees are acquired or in whatever path life leads. Assuredly, "Sooner or later that which is now life shall be poetry, and every fair and manly trait shall add a richer strain to the song."

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INFLUENCE OF FRENCH ANGUAGE ON LOWLAND SCOTCH.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE FRENCH LANGUAGE ON LOWLAND SCOTCH.

A. W. WRIGHT, B.A., GALT.

This paper is not intended to give any historical account of the influence of the French people on the Scotch. That influence, emphasized as it was by the unfriendliness of both towards England, is well known. The purpose of the paper is to indicate some of the effects of that influence on Scotch vocabulary, dealing only with words either still in popular use or found in literary works that are still read. A host of words derived from the French found in the older Scotch writers have become obsolete. The list of words given below is doubtless very incomplete, but it is hoped that it may prove interesting and suggestive. It will be noticed that a number of the words are probably of Teutonic or Celtic origin, and that if the French influenced these at all, it merely modified their form, or aided their being preserved in the language.

Following are the principal authorities consulted in the preparation of the paper:—Jamieson's Etymological Dictionary of the Scottish Language (edition of 1818); Skeat's Etymological Dictionary of the English Language; Brachet's Etymological French Dictionary; Worcester's, the International, and the Standard Dictionary; Max O'Rell's Friend Macdonald, in which there is an incomplete list; Rev. S. R. Crockett's Lilac Sunbonnet (glossary); several other glossaries; and Scotch people whom I have consulted.

ISHET, dish, platter; Fr. assiette, plate.

AUMRIE, AWMRY, pantry, cupboard; Fr. armoire, O. F. armaire. Jamieson gives the forms ALMERIE, ALMOIRIE, Fr. almoire, a place where alms were kept for distribution, and hence a cupboard.

BACKET, BAQUET, a shallow box or trough, hod; Fr. baquet, tub, bucket, trough; dim. of bac, punt, trough (Brachet).

BEIN, BEEN, BENE, BEYNE, wealthy, well provided for; Fr. bien, comfortable. Jamieson compares it to the Icelandic beina, O. E. bayne.

BONAILLE, BONAILIE, parting glass; Fr. bon aller.

BONNIE, beautiful, pretty; used by Spenser (bonnilasse), and by Shakespeare (bonny beast), but is considered by Jamieson as properly Scotch. Most authorities derive it from the Fr. bon, bonne, good. Jamieson considers this derivation as by no means satisfactory, but cannot substitute a better.

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BONSPIEL, a curling match, is not a hybrid word, the first part of which is derived from the Fr. bon. By some authorities it is regarded as of uncertain origin. Jamieson and Worcester derive it from the Belgian bonne, village, and spel, play. (Similarly the English BONFIRE is not a good fire, but a bone-fire, Scotch bane-fire; or possibly bon is connected with the Prov. E. bun, a dry stalk.)

BONNET, cap (a man's). Fr. bonnet, a cap; originally the name of a stuff.

BOURD, a jest, to jest. Obsolete in English. Chaucer has "I bourd and play." Fr. *bourde*, a fib, *bourder*, to tell whoppers. Skeat derives it from the O. F. *bourde*, a game, *bourder*, to play, but says it may be of Celtic origin.

BRAW, fine, handsome, worthy, gaily dressed, etc. Fr. brave, brave, honest, which Brachet derives from the Italian bravo, which in turn is probably of Teutonic origin. The Scotch may be more directly connected with the Teutonic forms, brawe braf. Skeat says that, "in any case it is only a form of brave."

BYRE, cow-house. O. F. bouverre. This derivation is given by Crockett. There are the modern Fr. forms bouvier, neat herd, drover and bouverie, ox-stall. Jamieson says it is "perhaps allied to Frankish buer, a cottage; byre, Suio-Gothic byr, a village; German bauer; or from Icelandic bu, a cow." In Skeat's opinion it is "merely a Scandinavian doublet of the English bower."

CALLAN, CALLANT, CALLAND, boy, young man, fellow (affectionately). Fr. galant, gallant, suitor (Jamieson.)'

CARAFF, decanter. Fr. carafe. According to Max O'Rell. Jamieson does not give the word.

CERTIE, CERTY (my certy != oh, indeed !), certainly. Fr. certes (O'Rell.) Not in Jamieson. Burns in the Cottar's Saturday Night uses the form certes, which is also used by Spenser.

CHAMMER, room, apartment. (Used by Crockett.) Fr. chambre? CHANCY, fortunate, lucky, auspicious, dangerous. Fr. chanceux, lucky, uncertain.

CLUSH, CLOUSE, a sluice. Fr. écluse, dam, sluice. (Jamieson.)

COLE, a haycock, to put hay in cocks. Fr. cueille, coil (of rope), cueillir, to gather.

COOM, dust of peat or coals, refuse from axles of vehicles, etc. Fr. écume. (Crockett.) The International Dictionary refers to the German Kahm, mculd or liquid; and the Icelandic $K\bar{\alpha}m$, grime, filth of dirt.

DAMBROD, draught-board, DAMS, checkers. O'Rell agrees with the populary etymology from the Fr. dames. Worcester, the International,

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and the Standard give the word dam, a crowned piece in the game of draughts, and derive it from the Fr. dume. Jamieson compares the Swedish dam, dampsel; dambraede, which have the same meaning.

DEMENTIT, deranged, insane. Fr. démentir, to deny. (O'Rell.) More likely simply the English demented.

DOOT, DOUT, DOUTE, doubt, fear, apprehension, to doubt. Fr. doute, douter, doubt, mistrust. (Jamieson and Crockett.)

DORTY, pettish, saucy, sulky. Fr. dureté, hardness (O'Rell). Gaelic dorrda, austere (Jamieson).

DOUCE, gentle, mild, sober, wise, prudent, sedate. No doubt from Fr. doux, douce, sweet, gentle; whether from the masculine or the feminine form is an open question, as the final consonant of the former was doubtless once sounded.

DOUR, DURE, bold, severe, hard, stubborn. Fr. dur, hard (O'Rell). Jamieson compares the Latin durus, and the Welsh dewr.

FASH, trouble, to trouble, FASHT, troubled. Fr. fâcher, to offend, afflict, vex. O. F. fascher, whence the Scotch form fasch.

FASHIOUS, troublesome. Fr. fâcheux, fâcheuse.

FAUT, FAUTE, FAWT, FALT, fault. Fr. faute, from Italian falta, from Latin fallita, act of failing (Brachet).

FEND, FEN, to shift, provide, fare in general. Also used substantively. Fr. defendre, to defend, maintain (Jamieson and Crockett). The Standard and the International Dictionary, say that it is an abbreviation of defend.

FLUNKIE, FLUNKY, FLUNKEY, a servant in livery, a servile person. Fr. *flanquer*, to flank (Skeat and Murray). Anglo-Saxon *vlonce*, pride (Jamieson). Connected with *flank* (Standard and International). It can hardly be regarded as a distinctively Scotch word, however.

GARDY LOO! Look out! Fr. gardez l'eau! beware the water! An old cry in Edinburgh, originating in the days when they used to throw water and all kinds of slops on the streets from the upper windows.

GARDY VEEN, wine-bin. Fr. garde-vin. This is in Max O'Rell's list, but is not given by Jamieson, who, however, gives the obsolete forms GARDEROB, wardrobe; Fr. garderobe; and GARDY VANCE, a cabinet; Fr. garde de viandes, cupboard,

GEAN, GEEN, wild cherry. Fr. guigne, a kind of cherry; formerly guine, O. F. originally guisne (Brachet). So GEEN-TREE, cherry-tree.

GIGOT, leg of mutton. Fr. gigot. Not in Jamieson, but quite common. GRAVAT, neck-tie. Fr. cravate. Not in Jamieson, but quite common. Obsolete in England (Standard).

GRANGE, farm-buildings (Jamieson), granary (O'Rell). Fr. grange, barn (for corn).

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GROSSERTS, GROSERTS, GROSERS, GROSERS, gooseberries. Fr. groseilles, (O'Rell), which Brachet traces to German forms : Kräusel, Kräuselbeere. Gaelic, grosaid (Jamieson).

GYSART, GYSARD, GYSAR, disguised, disfigured. Fr. guise, O. F. gise.

GOMRELL, GAMPHRELL, GOMEREL, GOMERIL, GOMRAL, a stupid fellow. Fr. goimpre, one who minds nothing but his belly; Icelandic, gambra (Jamieson). Neither Spiers and Surenne nor Brachet has the form goimpre, but both give goinfre, a gormandizer.

Gou, taste. Fr. gout. Gout, or gout, taste, relish, is used in England (Skeat, Standard, International). Not in Jamieson, but common.

GRAMARYE, magic, grammar. Fr. grammaire. Archaic, but used by Scott.

GRAMASHES, GAMACHES, a kind of leggings worn instead of boots, leggings covering the leg from the boot-tops to the knee. Fr. gamaches (Jamieson and International. Not in Brachet nor Spiers and Surenne).

HAGGIS, HAGGIES, "a dish commonly made in a sheep's maw, of its lungs, heart and liver, minced with suet, onions, salt and pepper; or of oatmeal, mixed with the latter, without any animal food." Fr. hachis, hash, minced meat (O'Rell and Worcester), from Old High German hacco, to chop (Brachet). Formed, perhaps, in imitation of nachis (International). From hay, to chop (Jamieson).

HOGUE, tainted. Fr. haut godt, high flavor (O'Rell, not in Jamieson). There is an obsolete English form $h\bar{o}g\bar{o}$, high flavor, scent, or relish, which doubtless came from the same source.

HURCHEON, hedgehog. Fr. hérisson (Crockett). Jamieson does not give the derivation. The English urchin, hedgehog, imp, small child, Skeat derives from the O. F. ireçon, heriçon, eriçon.

JALOUSE, JEALOUSE, to suspect. Fr. jalouser, to be jealous of.

JEAN, Jane. Fr. Jean, Jeanne. Has the French influenced the form of the Scotch name?

JUPE, skirt (O'Rell), a short mantle for a woman, a wide or great coat (Jamieson). Fr. jupe, petticoat, skirt (of gowns).

KIMMER, CUMMER, gossip, young girl. Fr. commère, gossip.

LEE, falsehood. O. F. ley (Crockett). More likely of Teutonic descent, cf., Dutch liegen, Anglo-Saxon leogan.

MANSE, minister's residence. O. F. manse (Crockett). Latin mansus (Jamieson). O. F. mansa (Standard). Low Latin mansa, a farm (Skeat). MAVIS, a thrush. Fr. mauvis.

MOUTER, toll, grist, a mixture of corn, to take toll for grinding. Fr. mouture, grinding, price of grinding, a meslin of wheat, rye and barley. (O'Rell). Jamieson gives no etymology.

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ng. Fr. l barley. Moo, Mou, Mow, mouth. Fr. moue (Crockett and Jamieson).

PANTUFLES, slippers. Fr. pantoufles (O'Rell). Not recognized by anyone the writer has asked with regard to it. Not in Jamieson, who, however, gives pantoun, a slipper, from Dunbar.

PERTRICK, PARTRICK, PAIRTRICK, PERTREK, partridge; Fr. perdrix.

PETTICOAT-TAILS, cakes. Fr. petits gatelles (gâteaux), little cakes. This is from Max O'Rell's list. Gatelle should be the O F. form yastel. 'The word is not in Jamieson, and seems not to be common, but the writer met one person who knew the form peepy-goat tails.

POUCH, pocket. Fr. pohe (O'Rell). Skeat derives the English pouch from the O. F. pouche. The Scotch word in all probability has the same origin.

PROCH, to approach; obsolete. Fr. proche, near (Jamieson). PROSH, MADAM; come, madam. Fr. approchez, madame (O'Rell).

REEFORT, radish. Fr. raifort, (strong) radish.

SAUF, to save. Fr. sauver, to save; sauf, safe.

SERVITER (O'Rell), SERVITE, SERVYTE (Jamieson), table napkin. Fr. serviette.

Sonsie, sonsy, plump, thriving, good-humored, pleasant-looking, lucky, Fr. sensé, sensible (suggested by a member of the Modern Language Association). Jamieson traces it to the Irish and Gaelic sonas, prosperity. The International Dictionary adopts this etymology.

SORN, SORNE, to sponge one's living. Fr. séjourner, to remain (Jamieson and Crockett). O. F. surjurner, sojourner (Brachet). So SORNARE, SORNER, one who takes free quarters.

STOUR, STOURE, STOWR, STURE, dust (in motion), trouble, fight. O. F. estour, dust, battle (Crockett, Jamieson, the International). Jamieson refers also to the Icelandic styr, battle, and Anglo-Saxon styran, to stir.

SUCKER (O'Rell), SUCCUR, SUCCURE, SUCCRE (Jamieson), sugar. Fr. sucre. The English sugar is simply another form of the same French word.

TASS, TASSIE, TAIS, cup. Fr. tasse.

TROKE, to barter, do business on a small scale, be busy about little Fr. troquer, to exchange. So the noun TROCK, TROQUE, exchange, barter, small wares, is from Fr. troc, barter, truck (Brachet). Crockett gives the form TROKINS, dealings, also from troquer.

OLLYE, OULIE, ULYE, ULIE (Jamieson), ULE (O'Rell), oil. Belgian olie. Fr. huile (Jamieson).

VERITY, truth. Fr. vérité. Archaic in English.

VESIE, VISIE, VISYE, WESY, VIZZY, to visit, examine accurately, take aim. Fr. viser, to aim at.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY OF GRAMMAR.

J. MARSHALL, M.A., ST. THOMAS.

To begin by depreciating one's paper and doubting whether there can be such a treatment of the subject as one proposes to make, whether inquiry can be directed with any prospect of a valuable result to the investigation of the logical or psychological principles involved in syntax or syntactical change, is scarcely, perhaps, the best way of gaining the confidence of one's hearers. And yet such a mode of procedure is prescribed not only by the logical impulse to begin at the beginning, but even more imperatively by the confusion and doubt in which the question of the value of the study of Grammar seems to be involved. A movement having for its object the reduction of the time given to Grammar in the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes has recently been set on foot, the opposition to which may be characterized as conservative and strenuous rather than rational. Defenders and opponents alike seem ignorant of the real claims of Grammar to an important place in the list of High School studies. The reason for this is not far to seek. Utility, practical or ideal, determines in the long run the retention or rejection of all subjects of study. So long as we believed that Grammar was "the art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety," there was never any question about its value. In time, however, we began to notice that the power of using language effectively was a rare product of heredity, home influences and wide reading; that the use of language was one thing, the power to explain it quite another; that here as elsewhere the theory came after the fact which it sought to explain, and that it would be quite as absurd to nourish a practical command of language on a study of its nature as to try to feed the body with a treatise on physiology. With an instinctive or intuitive perception of the value of Grammar truer than our over-hasty interpretation of that instinct, we then said that Grammar was a science, the study of which would have the disciplinary value of that of any other science, the cultivation of powers of observation and classification, with a special training of its own. Most of us here are old enough to remember the transition from the practical to the scientific view of the value of Grammar, and the enthusiasm which for the moment it brought to the study of the subject. But that enthusiasm has cooled. Neither the grammarians nor the teachers of Grammar have been quite certain of their mission, have

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quite justified their own high claims. In recent years many men of excellent scholarship and eminent ability both in England and in America have written on Grammar, and all that they have written is of the greatest suggestiveness, but the total effect of their work has been to unsettle rather than to establish. For this they are not at all to be blamed. The study of Grammar, like everything else, has been influenced by the great movement of thought which characterizes the nineteenth century-a movement through negation to reaffirmation, through destruction to reconstruction. The writers on Grammar are not to be blamed if in their revolt against the fixed mechanical distinctions of former Grammarians, in their regard for shading subtleties of distinction, they have obscured all distinctions and reduced Grammar to a night, as Hegel used to say of the transcendentalists, in which all cows are black. They are not even to be blamed if their work has tended, as undoubtedly it has tended, to the temporary reascendency of mere mechanical parsing and analysis. As in the wider thought movement of the century, of which I have already said the evolution of Grammar is a part, an appeal to authority was the readist escape from the spiritual anarchy of the romanticists; and very few Arnolds or Wordsworths succeeded in emerging into the spiritual freedom of absolute idealism; so in Grammar the easiest escape from the anarchy of grammatical classification resulting from the work of those who may be called the romanticists of Grammar, was in a return to mere formal and mechanical parsing and analysis, which refuses to consider the different logical values of, for example, "him" in Tennyson's

In the vast Cathedral leave him. God accept him, Christ receive him.

or the fundamental want of logic in "she was given the book." The worthlessness of such grammatical study, and, presumably, its prevalence, has resulted in the movement referred to at the outset, against all grammatical teaching. What is needed is a man who will do in Grammar what Arnold tried to do in Literature, enter, namely, with the sympathy of complete understanding into both of its opposed enthusiasms, the regard for law and the desire for freedom, who, not merely by applying the leaden rule of temporary expediency, but by way of a deeper insight and a firmer grasp of the unity that binds together all the phenomena of language, will indicate a method of study and a grammatical nomenclature at once definite and precise enough for clearness, and sufficiently flexible to take account of all shades of logical equivalence. Wrightson, of Cambridge, the author of the High School

Grammar, and one or two others, have seen such an underlying unityand suggested such a method and nomenclature. To Wrightson, perhaps, belongs the credit of the most scientific treatment of Grammar yet attempted in English. Hegel used to say that in man we had a partial manifestation of the subjective aspect of the infinite mind or spirit, while nature was its objective manifestation. Man, the god of this lower world, finds his most permanent objective expression in language. Every evidence of the bygone civilization of entire races has perished save their languages; these endure and are likely to endure as permanent revelations of the mind and spirit of peoples long passed away, their habits of thought, their fineness of feeling, and their practical energy, offering a rich and inviting field to the student of morals, of æsthetics, and of logic. It is as the record of human thought as distinguished from emotion and will that the grammarian, according to Wrightson, is interested in language. The study of language differs from the study of logic as the finished picture differs from the outline sketch. Logic introduces the student to the broader manifestations of the analytic and synthetic movement of thought, Grammar gives one the familiarity with logical processes which is gained only by long study of the subtler discriminations and subtler analogies that make language such a many colored web of shifting hues. Brevity will compel me, as you all know the book, to abandon all illustration of its power of firm yet delicate discrimination, with the suggestion that in the classification of elements, in the discussion of the cognate object, of subordinating and coordinating attributes, apposites and adverbials, of the bothersome accusative and infinitive, and in the distinction between coordinate and subordinate clauses of result, its scientific organon, or method, appears at its best. A considerable power of logical analysis and much flexibility of mind are required for this sort of grammatical study, and many teachers, after a brief trial, drop back into the easier method of mechanical parsing and analysis with the detection of such shades of logical difference as lie readily on the surface. If I cry peccavi, I may say without want of modesty that the powers I speak of are one of the results of the logical study of the subject pursued in good faith, and that which most clearly proves that Grammar may be as interesting, as full of intellectual surprises, as strenuous a means of mental discipline as Mathematics, while surpassing Mathematics in range and flexibility. Grammatical analysis is with me the first step towards unravelling a poet's more difficult passages, and a presupposition always. With Coleridge, I believe "that poetry, even that of the loftiest and, seemingly, that of the wildest odes, has a logic

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of its own as severe as that of science and more difficult, because more subtle and dependent on more, and more fugitive causes," and that Grammar differs from literature only in its more patient and persistent pursuit of that logic. I should very much doubt the accuracy of the teacher who excludes Grammar from the literature class, or willingly resigns his classes in Grammar to another. However successful he may be in developing the emotional significance of what he reads with his pupils, he is in danger of losing the sanity and certainty that comes from closely following all the subtle transitions of an author's thought.

HISTORIC GRAMMAR.

The study of the laws of present usage is the study of stationary mind as it were. This would leave nothing to be desired if we knew what mind was in its fully realized condition, but mind as we know it is mind in process of becoming, and never with more than relative maturity or stationariness. Thus the logical study of language requires to be completed by the psychological; in other words, the study of present usage leads organically to the study of Historic Grammar. The difference between the point of view of logic and that of psychology is mainly this, that whereas logic investigates the characteristics of mind as such, its comparing and relating activity, its complementary movements of analysis and synthesis, without reference to its growth or becoming, psychology occupies itself with the appearance of mind in the individual, its becoming, and the influences which help or hinder its development. The difference may be illustrated in this way. If we compare the conversation of uneducated men with that of their superiors in knowledge and power, we notice a greater looseness, a more marked failure to hit the right nail on the head, a much greater disjunction and separation in the component parts of that, whatever it may be, which they wish to communicate. In the uneducated man there is, as Coleridge said, a want of that prospectiveness of mind, that surview which enables a man to foresee the whole of what he is to convey, appertaining to any one point, and by this means so to subordinate and arrange the different parts according to their relative importance as to convey it at once as an organized whole. If in admiration of the superior dexterity, flexibility, and promptitude of the mental movements of the educated man we were to take him as the standard and enquire into his habitudes of thought, our point of view would be logical and stationary. If, however, we thought rather of the mental distance between the two men and asked how that distance had been traversed in the one case and why it had remained untravelled in the

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other, we begin the evolutionary or psychological study of mind. What is true of the individual is true also of the race. The want of directness in older English must have impressed itself on every teacher of English. Matthew Arnold, in his essay on Poetry, speaking of the influence of Dryden and Pope, illustrates this difference. Chaucer, as every one knows, abounds in passages like the following :--

> Wyd was was his parish and houses far asunder But he ne lafte not for rain ne thunder In sickness nor in meschief to visite The ferrest in his parish moche and lite Uppon his feet and in his hand a staff.

Passages perfectly clear but naïve, following closely the unorganized drift of the mental images, making no attempt to subordinate the various part to one central impression, hence extempore in diction and phraseology as if written on the spur of the moment. Taking a still wider survey the introduction to Alfred the Great's Pastoral Care quoted by Earle is a good illustration of the same difference.

It has very often come into my mind Alfred says:

(1) What wise men there formerly were throughout England both of sacred and secular orders;

(2) and how happy times there were then throughout England;

(3) and how the kings who had power over the nation in those days obeyed God and His ministers;

(4) and how they preserved peace, morality and order at home, and at the same time enlarged their territory abroad;

(5) and how they prospered both in war and wisdom;

(6) and also the sacred orders how zealous they were both in teaching and learning and in all the services they owed to God;

 $\left(7\right)$ and how for eigners came to this land in search of wisdom and instruction ;

(8) and how we should now have to get them from abroad if we were to have them.

The idea in Alfred's mind is evidently the unhappy contrast between the political, intellectual and religious condition of his own England and that of the England prior to his time, but how clumsily expressed. What a disproportion between the phrases and the ideas intended to be conveyed. The contrast is vaguely suggested in eight noun clauses depending on the main verb, seven of which refer to the former condition, leaving only the eighth for the present state of the country. Again, the clauses are not in the logical order (1) the number of wise men formerly in the country, (2) a general statement of former pros-

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perity, (3) the piety of the kings, (4) their power and success at home and abroad, (5) their wisdom and valor, (6) the zeal of the sacred orders, (7) the resort of foreigners to the country in search of learning. The modern order would be 2, 3, 5, 4, 1, 6, 7, that is to say the general statement of former prosperity; the piety, power, wisdom and valor of the kings; the number of learned men; their zeal and the coming of foreigners in search of wisdom. See how the logic of the sentence is improved by rearranging without making the other changes I have suggested. It has often come to my mind how happy times there were formerly throughout England, and how the kings who had power over the nation obeyed God and his ministers, and how they prospered both with war and wisdom, and how they preserved peace, morality and order at home, and at the same time enlarged their territory abroad, and what wise men there formerly were throughout England both of the sacred and the secular orders, and the sacred orders how zealous they were both in teaching and in learning, and in all the services they owed to God, and how foreigners came to this land in search of wisdom, and how we should have to get them from abroad if we were to have them.

Look now at the disproportion of ideas in clause three. Starting out obviously with the idea of the contrast between the present and the past, Alfred gets only as far as the third clause, when he introduces the reverence of the former kings for God and his ministers, which implies logically what it was never intended to imply, viz., Alfred's irreverence for both. In short an absence of proportion and unity in the structure of the sentence characterizes Alfred's style.

Modern English prose is often styled artificial as contrasted with older English in which the sentences come fresh from the mind as images of psychical operations; and syntactical development is said to have been from the natural to the artificial, from the concrete to the abstract.

I think, however, it will not be hard to see that a little artificiality, if it be such, a little less naturalness is no disadvantage; that while Alfred's mind obeyed the same psychological laws of similarity, contrast, etc., as ours do, his power over the medium of thought was much less than ours. The function of Historic Grammar is to exhibit the steps by which the precision, balance, and proportion of modern English has been evolved from what was so slipshod, disproportioned and fumbling. As the study of individual mind finds its completion in the study of the processes by which the universal principle of intelligence has come to manifest itself partially and intermittently in that individual so the study of the logical principles implied in present usage is

merged and completed in the study of the stages and tentative experiments through which the national mind has passed on the way to its present development. The same principle of organization as has revivified, reconstructed and transformed the lower sciences, the great reconciling principle of evolution is the wonder-working magician that will clothe with flesh and breathe new life into the dry bones that have with such commendable industry been collected in books like Skeat's Etymology, Morris' Outlines of English Accidence, and make it possible for us to see the syntactical errors and ineptitudes of the past as partial and germinating truths, to detect how the expanding mind of the race at first inevitably seizes on forms of expression which are inadequate to it, and which it throws off as it advances towards greater maturity.

CERTAIN ILLOGICAL CONSTRUCTIONS.

While the evolution of syntax is certainly from the less to the more logical, no language ever reaches perfect logical clearness, ever becomes the flexible and perfectly-fitting garment of the thought. Illogical constructions and idioms come down to it from the past, and others are acquired in its progress. Intelligence working unconsciously in the sensuous observation of men, in the building up of institutions, and in the formation of language, obeys the same laws, and is liable to the same errors as the more reflective reason of man. All thought is a process of inference. Sense knowledge which to some appears so direct and intuitive is simply an incredibly rapid, and complex inference from all previous experience and as such is as liable to false inferences as any other exercise of thought. The engine driver who mistakes the green signal for the red is quite as guilty of illogical inference, of drawing a wrong conclusion, as the lawyer who breaks every rule of deductive or inductive reasoning. Political, religious, social institutions, languages, and all other product of thought contain many false inferences, the detection of which it is that is at the bottom of all political, social, religious or syntactical change, though in all departments a considerable tolerance of hoary solecisms appears. An interesting study may be made of some of the false inferences of language. 1. Illogical constructions resulting from false analogy, or making a resemblance where none existed: "A three shilling novel" is surely an illogical expression which one would be at a loss to account for until he remembered the expression "a hundred pound," in which "hundred" is a substantive with pound in a genitive relation; "heart of hearts" is logically nonsensical, while "king of kings" is perfectly logical. Nothing could be plainer than "kings of kings" as an expression for a high degree of power; hence "heart of hearts" for "his very heart." "I

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have walked " is perfectly illogical, but "I have written a letter " is logical, "have "indicating possession, and "written" logically qualifying letter, which is the object of "have." By false analogy the construction was extended from transitive to intransitive verbs.

The decay of formal endings has contributed not a little to this form of syntactical confusion; "John was given the book by them" is a quite illogical variant for "They gave John the book," but was rendered possible by the absence of any formal means of preventing John's being confounded with John in "They struck John," which of course could logically become "John was struck by them." "If I please" and "as I please" are other illogical constructions that have risen in the same way. In "woe was this king," king is a dative whose case ending has disappeared, then king was mistaken for a nominative, and the construction taken to be: "This king is woe," then "woe is me" became "I am woe," and "it pleases me" "I please."

2. Constructions arising from rapidity of mental action. "I am friends with him," for example, arises from the confusion, in the rapidity of mental movement, of the two very different constructions, "I and he are friends," and "I am his friend." All forms of anacoluthic expression : "My noble lord, three times I holp him to his horse," are examples of the inability of language to follow the swiftness of the mind when in a moment of excitement the hand of reflection is taken off the bridle of thought. The many illogical constructions with "like" are also examples in point: "For words like nature half reveal and half conceal the soulwithin," where the likeness is not entire but only in respect to the power of nature, and of words of concealing an underlying meaning.

3. Illogical constructions due to a desire for emphasis; the double genitive: "the city of Toronto"; the illogical: "my own," "his own," etc., where the idea of possession is sought to be emphasized by a repetition of the idea of ownership. To the same origin may be attributed all forms of bilingualism on mage commended and the same origin may be attributed all

forms of bilingualism, once so common and not yet extinct in English. This is not meant to be an exhaustive study of the illogical constructions in English but only of some of the typical illogical inferences embedded in language My object was to show that ordinary Grammar, the study of mind as it mirrors itself in language, finds its completion and fulfilment in Historical Grammar, the study of mind in process of becoming, and that both are the study of that ever active intelligence which makes all institutions inevitably to sap them, resting only in that which is absolute and eternal, which, moving by its own characteristic laws, comparing and relating, identifying and again disjoining, is ever coming, in error and in certitude, in darkness and in light, to a fuller comprehension of itself, the world and the absolute.

SOME OF THE TENDENCIES OF THE GERMAN LITERATURE OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

MISS A. E. MARTY, M.A., ST. THOMAS.

At the close of the century, it is with interest that the student of literature looks back over the past hundred years and traces the great currents of thought underlying the literary productions of this period from their source to their high-water mark; observing their union to form a new and stronger force, and again their sub-division into lesser currents, until at last they are lost in the great sea of thought.

It is because the life and works of a great man reflect more or less fully the century in which he lives, and are a prophecy of the age to come, that we turn to Goethe to find in their highest development the principles underlying the literature of the early nineteenth century, and the germ of those which characterize its close.

Standing on the cross-road of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, he forms a link between them. He combines the intellectual qualities of the past age—its reason, sound logic and finished style, with the poetic spirit of a new epoch, its genuine feeling and striving after naturalness and individuality. He is the slavish follower of no particular school of literature, *Sturm und Drang, Classic*, or *Romantic.* "In Goethe we have neither stock Classicism nor stock Romanticism," says Carlyle. Goethe recognizes in each whatever there is of truth and beauty and strength.

It is now only about a hundred and twenty years since his drama *Goetz*, and his novel *Werther* appeared, both of which are a revolt from the standpoint of ideas as well as of style against the Classicism of the period; and though he afterwards cut himself loose from the extravagances of the *Sturm und Drang*, and retraced his steps in the production of such works as *Iphigenia* and *Tasso*, yet he remained a foremost warrior against the weaknesses of the Classic school, that is to say, its dead routine and narrow literary standards, in contrast to the freedom and individuality of genius.

Goethe was on the whole, unfavorable to the Romantic school as it then existed in Germany, and which he severely ridiculed; yet his sympathies were on the side of toleration and reverence for other ages and the literature of other countries, and he sympathized with the current of thought which was underlying the principles of this school. It is true we find him using a legend of the middle ages with its drapery But how ticist! Do into a nin disgusted The drama

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drapery of mysticism and superstition, for his great drama Faust. But how differently he uses his material from the ordinary Romanticist! Doktor Faustus, the practiser of the black art, is transformed into a nineteenth century type, self-analytic, introspective, and critical, disgusted with the shallowness of so-called learning and knowledge. The drama Faust, is the picture of a soul striving for self-realization.

What then do we take to be Goethe's great contribution to the literary progress of the age? It was an effort to modernize the literature of the period to suit the needs of the time; a revolt against mere slavish obedience to any school, and a demand for freedom and individuality. Carlyle has borne testimony to the modern spirit which Goethe infused into literature, whilst Goethe himself refers to his work in the cause of the development of individuality. In his essay on the State of German Literature, the former writes in his picturesque and vigorous style. "With Goethe the myths of by-gone days pass for what they are, we have no witch-craft or magic in the common acceptation; he does not bring his heroes from Oriental climes and periods of chivalry, or any section either of Atlantis or the age of Gold, feeling that the reflex of these things is cold and faint, and only hangs like a cloud picture in the distance, beautiful but delusive, and which even the simplest knows to be a delusion. The end of poetry is higher; she must dwell in reality and become manifest to men in the forms among which they live and move. And this is what we prize in Goethe and more or less in Schiller. The coldest sceptic, the most callous worldling sees not the actual aspects of life more sharply than they are here delineated; the nineteenth century stands before us in all its contradiction and perplexity, barren, mean and baleful, as we have all known it, but here no longer mean and barren, but enamelled into beauty in the poet's spirit."

Goethe's own testimony reads: "Through me the German poets have become aware, that, as a man must live from within outwards, so the artist must work from within outwards, seeing that, make what contortions he will he can only bring to light his own individuality."

The work of infusing the modern spirit into literature, begun by Goethe, was carried on by Henrich Heine. It was just this effort to bring all ideas and subject-matter under the point of view of the nineteenth century that gave value to the work of Heine, and entitle him to the self-assumed designation—"Soldier in the liberation war of humanity."

It is through the influence of Heine and Ludwig Boerne that the school of writers known as Das junge Deutschland was formed in 27

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1835. This school is the Sturm und Drang of the nineteenth century. Its leaders were such men as Ludolf Weinberg, Karl Gutzkow, Heinrich Laube, and Theodor Mundt. They controlled the journalism of the day, and the period is sometimes spoken of as the Journalistic Sturm und Drang Epoch. These writers differed from Heine and Boerne in that they strove for doctrine, dogma and an expressed literary creed; but like Heine and Boerne they aimed at the union of art with life, knowing that the more exclusive the art, the more dilettante it becomes.

"Poetry," says Heinrich Laube, "must be born again through the life of the present." The aim of this school was to depict real characters and conditions; they noted the intellectual, industrial, social, and other tendencies of the time and depicted them with fervor and brilliance, keeping before them the ideal element; they depicted "The nineteenth century in all its contradiction and perplexity, barren, mean and baleful as we have all known it, but here no longer mean and barren, but enamelled into beauty in the poet's spirit." Ludolf Weinberg, the originator of the formal union, included all who "sought to break with past traditions or German Philistinism in art, church, state and society, and who wished to fight for their principles of reform through a literary means."

The cause, as in the case of every other reform, literary or otherwise, was espoused by men who but partially understood the principles for which they claimed to be fighting: some forsook the union gradually and returned to the Romantic school; others again, showed only the extravagances of "Young Germany." Among the latter we might mention Erust Willkomm, who is excessive in his analysis of modern society, and portrays unhealthy views of life; his heroes are without ambition, tired of the world, tainted with the *Weltschmerz* of Heine and Byron, and in all these eccentricities they masquerade as a *product* of the times.

But Das junge Deutschland has not entirely drifted into such excesses. The underlying principle of the combination of a healthy realism with idealism is too sound, and the talent supporting it, in the person of Gutzkow and Laube was too great. Realism and naturalism have branched out from it and threatened to swallow it, but now at the close of the century the principles for which Gutzkow strove are still holding their own, for the simple reason that, old as art, they are true to art.

About the year 1850 there was a strong reaction against the writings of Gutzkow, and especially against some of his later novels. This reaction journal inward They de should appearan great vi commerc chiefly a

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the writings ovels. This reaction was headed by Gustav Freytag and Julian Schmidt in their journal *Grenzbote*; they found his work too analytic of the higher inward life, of the intellectual and spiritual struggles of the soul. They demanded a more realistic view of life and declared that the novel should portray the German people at work. In 1855, with the appearance of Freytag's *Soll und Haben*,—*Debit and Credit*, the great victory for German realism was gained. Freytag's story of commercial life was sufficient to start a train of other realistic tales,

chiefly after the style of the Dorfgeschichte of Gotthelf and Auerbach. Rudolf von Gottschall, in his Deutsche Nationallitteratur des neunzehnten Jahrhunderts, gives a very interesting chapter entitled Idealism, Realism, and Naturalism, in which he points to Gutzkow as the great champion of Idealism in Germany, collecting his shattered forces to deal a fatal blow to Realism, in his latest work, Dionysius Longinus, published in 1888. Gottschall marks the rise, since 1880, of what is known in Germany as Naturalism. This is another phase of Realism, aiming, as it does, at depicting life just as it exists, the lowest as well as the highest, the ugly as well as the beautiful, and with a predilection for dwelling upon the ugly and repulsive. The influence of Ibsen, Zola and Tolstoi is easily traced in the naturalistic German writers. Gottschall points to Conrad Alberti and Karl Bleibtreu as the chief exponents of the school in Germany, and remarks with pleasure that Bleibtreu, in his Revolution der Litteratur, speaks of Naturalism as a reaction against the extreme Realism which followed the healthy realistic spirit of "Young Germany." He sees in Bleibtreu's work the same tendency which Gutzkow evinced in Dionysius Longinus. "Naturalism," says Bleibtreu, "is to unite Realism with Romanticism in such a way that the most prosaic fact may glow with the artistic beauty of the ideal." To this school, influenced on the one hand by the grossness of Zola and Ibsen, and reaching out on the other, though but dimly, perhaps, for the ideal, belong the writers Gerhardt Hauptmann and Hermann Sudermann.

We shall now examine some of the dramas of these two men to see in what way the modern spirit has infused itself into the German literature of to-day: this modern spirit, with its democracy, its enthusiasm for scientific investigation, and its cry for the development of individualism. The demand has been for a literature to suit the needs of the times, and the times have furnished ample subjects. The Egyptian romances of Ebers, and the historic novels of Scheffel, Prutz and Moser, bear witness to the historic tendency of the century, yet, in many instances, the historic subjects are a mere background for modern

ideas. On the whole, the Middle Age myths have had to make room for the great problems confronting us. It would be useless to attempt an enumeration of the various departments from which the artist has drawn his materials; he has covered the whole range of human interests; no topic has been too sacred, and no class or type of humanity too mean for him to portray. In the middle of the century, Robert Eduard Prutz wrote romances dealing with the labor struggles as they then existed, and now, at the close, Gerhardt Hauptmann, Ludwig Fulda, and many others are giving us vivid dramatic pictures of the Socialistic struggles in a more advanced stage. This struggle between capital and labor has been portrayed in its many phases. Hauptmann in his drama Die Weber, written in the Silesian dialect, has given a touching, though repellant, picture of the oppression, misery and degradation of the poor weavers of Silesia, driven when at the point of starvation to rebel, mobbing the luxurious home of the wealthy employer, urged on to commit excesses as outrageous as they were futile, and losing in the moment of supreme bitterness the small element of the human still left to them from generations of inherited degradation and lives of sordid struggling for a meagre existence. Ludwig Fulda, in Das Verlorene Paradies, takes up the same subject; his portrayal is not so vivid nor powerful, but it is superior in that it introduces the ideal element. Hauptmann shows only a selfish, grasping employer, and a degraded, oppressed working class at war, the weaker forced to yield to the stronger. He points to no redress, and leaves us hopeless and despondent. Fulda is more optimistic. He seeks a means of redress, and finds it in the intelligent, practical man of the middle class, a man of high ideals, with wide sympathies for the downtrodden, and wielding such an influence over the employer to whom he has endeared himself by faithful service, that the latter makes concessions and alleviates the sufferings of his workmen.

But the struggles of nineteenth century literature are not chiefly the outward struggles, as those above mentioned. The result of the cry for individuality has been to produce a literature psychological, selfconscious and critical in the extreme. In the older novel and drama, the crisis was brought about by outward events. In the literature of to-day, the problems are mental and psychological, the struggle is an inward one; it is one of character. Prominent among the problems of the nineteenth century literature is the problem of the development of individualism. In this age when woman's work and usefulness is extending so widely, when the women of all civilized countries are uniting into national councils for the better carrying on of all kinds of philanth between esting of The deve drama 1 on the F

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philanthropic work, the question as to where the line should be drawn between repression and development is a natural as well as an interesting one, especially when taken up in connection with her career. The development of individualism is the *motif* of Hermann Sudermann's drama *Die Heimat*,—a drama which is to-day scoring signal successes on the French stage, with Sara Bernhardt interpreting the leading part.

The daughter of a strictly honorable colonel of the leading part. refuses to marry the man of her father's choice, and as a result of her disobedience is forced to leave home. She throws aside the narrow repressing influences of her early life, spent in the small provincial town, and struggles in the heart of a great city for an existence.

After bitter struggles, moral and spiritual, she achieves great success as an opera singer, having developed the musical talent of which she was unaware during her-secluded life. She returns to her native town on the occasion of a Saenger-fest, as the famous soprano of the day. Her natural affection prompts her to seek a reconciliation with her father and a renewal of the old home ties. The latter is quite willing to become reconciled to his daughter on condition that she throw aside her profession, which is connected in his mind with degradation and disgrace, and take up life again where she had left off. But this is an utter impossibility. The characteristics, which lying dormant within her had been the first cause of her estrangement have been developed after years of public life. Her individuality has been developed, but not without a sacrifice. It has made an impassable barrier between her and those to whom she should be united by natural ties. In a scene full of dramatic intensity, she asserts her individuality by saying "I am myself and cannot be repressed. Since the moment of my return I have felt the paternal authority stretching out its net to entangle me and making ready the yoke beneath which I am to bend." Sudermann has well distributed the light and shade on this character. He shows the darker side of such a struggle for self-realization, even though as in this case it be crowned with outward success; he shows its moral and spiritual dangers, its tendency to render the heart hard, callous and self-centred. The father's quick eye sees expressed in his daughter's face something of all this, and looking upon her as she stands before him in the splendor of her costly robes, contrasting with the quaint simplicity of her younger sister's attire, he says-" Finery and worldly honor cannot deceive the father's eye; 'tis true you seem to have retained your warm heart, but in your glance I see an expression which pleases me but ill, and about your mouth lurks the curl of mockery." The heroine herself is conscious of a lack in her own life

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as she contrasts it with the ideal life of self-renunciation of the clergyman to whom her father had wished to marry her. She says, "Your heart puts forth its sympathies to meet the needs of other hearts and draws them towards it. And you do it not for a selfish motive. What shall I call it? Self-surrender, self-privation, it has something to do with self-or the opposite of it." But although she recognizes the beauty in this life of purity and self-abnegation, of Entsagen, as Carlyle terms it, in contrast to hers of selfishness and moral failures, she feels that it has been narrow and repressed when viewed in the light of the fulness and wide development of her own. She has sinned more, it is true, but she has experienced and suffered more, and has through her suffering and failure grown stronger to fight against evil. This is her defence; for when the clergyman says: "Yes, I have had to repress many things within me, within my soul; my peace is like that of a corpse; and when you stood before me yesterday in your originality, your naïveté and your strength, I said to myself 'That is what I might have become if joy had come into my life at the right time," she replies, "Joy, and one thing more my friend, guilt. If we wish to grow, to develop, we must first become guilty. A rising above guilt is worth more than the purity you preach." In spite of this defence however, there is a certain weariness and emptiness in the gaiety of the woman who cries "A profession that is an essential to one's life, that is enough for me."

The work of the dramatist is to draw the picture and he has done it well. It is for the reader to make the application. The dramatist has shown that in such development of character and individualism, a great moral and spiritual struggle is involved, which, to some extent, makes null the advantage of the development; for sin cannot enter the soul and leave it in its past state of purity, even if overcome and made a stepping-stone to better things.

But the nineteenth century, besides being a self-conscious and introspective age, is an age of democracy, of scientific investigation, and of wide toleration for other nationalities, customs and creeds. The Jew of George Eliot's Daniel Deronda, is a very different creation from Christopher Marlowe's Jew of Malta, or even Shakespeare's Shylock, and one has only to read the addresses delivered at the Parliament of Religions held in Chicago in 1893, to trace a rapid extension of the spirit of tolerance since George Eliot's time. Tolerance for the opinion of others, and democracy, in this narrower sense, are closely bound up with the study of science. Science claims that the opinion and experience of the humblest mind is valuable. The right of opinions to exist, however widely different, is established, since they may be the natural has yet hence in other. crept a t many op take the

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natural outcome of a natural process of development. No one theory has yet been adequate to solve the perplexing problems of the age, and hence in this sense no opinion can claim great precedence over the other. It is little wonder then that into the current literature has crept a type of character tolerant to indifference. "When there are so many opinions, all in their way equally good," argues this type, "why take the trouble to have an opinion at all?"

The question "What constitutes honor?" and the mere relativity and conventionality of the term " honor " has been the peg upon which two powerful German dramas of the nineteenth century have hung this idea of toleration for all opinions. Friedrich Hebbel in his drama Maria Magdalena has shown what evils arise from giving way to what is mere empty sentiment and only a relative term. Hermann Sudermann in Die Ehre shows that there are as many different standards of honor as grades of society. The spirit of toleration for all standards, he has embodied in the person of the Count Von Trast. The Count, a man of good birth, wide experience of life and great wealth amassed in business in the East Indies, accompanies a friend on his return home to Germany. The latter is of humble parentage and has received his business training in the East Indies through the patronage of a wealthy man who owed his father a debt of gratitude. He returns, expecting a happy reunion, but finds a gulf between himself and his family, who seem to him to be sordid, mean, and lacking in all sense of honor, as he understands the term. Graf von Trast shows his sympathy for all classses in observing warningly to his friend "my dear friend, do not despise your relatives, do not say that they are worse than you and I; they are different, that is all. In their hearts dwells a feeling which is foreign to you, the vision of the world which they picture to themselves is one you do not understand. It would be rash and narrow of you to judge them." But the honor of the family of his friend has been sullied, and the latter feels bound to avenge the wrong, but the Count dissuades him, saying : "No one has sullied your honor, because no one in the world is able to do so. What you call honor-that mixture of modesty, sensitiveness and pride, what you have trained within yourself by a life of uprightness and stern loyalty to duty can be taken from you by no mere act of frivolity any more than your goodness of heart or your sound judgment. It is either a part of yourself or it does not exist at all." It is an impossibility not to admire this generous and liberal spirit ; so sympathetic in its judgment of others. But in this very liberality lies the danger; it leads to a denial of all absolute truth, for the Count is led to exclaim "Es gibt gar keine Ehre "- There is no such thing as honor.

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Hauptmann's Vor Sonnenaufgang is another instance of the way in which the scientific tendency of the age has crept into its literature. The hero Alfred Loth, a young man of education, with opinions formed on all the great questions of the day, interested in the social struggles of the times, of high ideals, whose life, to use his own words, is "a struggle for the happiness of others," goes into one of the mining districts of Germany, to study the condition of the miners with a view to afterwards calling the attention of the country to their wrongs. Here, he becomes intimately acquainted with a family of some property, but ignorant, gross, diseased physically and morally. Fate entangles him in her web and holds him for a time in this house, surrounded with this. atmosphere, until he begins to feel himself tainted by its sickly air. He realizes that to stay there would mean moral and spiritual death, as he is powerless against the force of this environment; all that is left for him is to flee, and this he does to ensure his salvation.

We have here an interpretation of life which is unhealthy. It is an instance of modern fatalism, which makes man the creature of his race, epoch and environment, and which leaves no room for the individual's struggle. Man is reduced to a piece of mechanism. The old classic fatalism which represented humanity tossed about by Fate, circumstance or chance, is less morbid than this. It is more sound because in the classic drama, man still had the power left to strive against misfortune, to meet his fate nobly or basely. In modern fatalism, man is powerless, he is the natural product of certain conditions. The life depicted here is without a struggle and hence without joy. The tragedy of life is depicted, but the individual's will power in no way influences the tragedy. There is no hope, because there is no fear. It is a case of the inevitable brought about by natural laws; and "That art," says George Eliot, " which leaves the soul in despair, is laming to the soul and is denounced by the healthy sentiment of an active community."

We might compare in contrast to this interpretation of life, the note struck in Goethe's Faust, where man is a creature "restless in his healthy activity" and his struggle for the ideal.

> "Freedom alone he earns, as well as life, Who day by day must conquer them anew. * * * * * Saved is this noble soul from ill, Our spirit peer ; who ever Strives forward with unswerving will

The cause of such a morbid interpretation of life as' in Vor Sonnenaufgang is not hard to find. It is due to internal conditions as well as to outside influence. In the complexity of this nineteenth

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century, the rising generation has been confronted with great problems. The beginning of the century with its enthusiasm for science and democracy bade fair to solve these problems. But the social troubles at home and in the neighboring countries have been alleviated but little by democracy; Darwinism has not been sufficient to explain life and account for the origin of evil. Young Germany has grown tired of the struggle. Evolution explains all things by naturally evolved processes. What, therefore, is the use of striving and struggling? When these are some of the mental symptoms, it is not surprising to find a number of Germans very ready to follow the example of Ibsen and other northern writers in the application of such ideas as these to life. A study of the dramas of Ibsen will reveal just such tendencies as have been mentioned. The modern fatalism stands out in all its rigidity in The Ghosts and in Rosmersholm, and the development of individualism is the motif of his drama A Doll's House.

It is on account of just such a morbid view of life as the above, that the name naturalistic writer has become associated with pessimism and all that is ugly and repellant. It is true that a literature whose aim is to depict life as it exists, is more apt to lose sight of the ideal and show only the hideous and repulsive than one which draws its subject matter from the fairy land of romance and chivalry, encircled by the halo of the past. This is all the more natural when the social problems are such as to cause men to look with apprehension into the future. But this is not the fault of naturalism itself, whose aim is to bring literature to the point of view of the nineteenth century; to represent and make clear the problems of the day so that the world may better understand them and sooner arrive at a solution; and to aid the individual in seeing life as it exists, so that he may form right ideas of life. The true artist while portraying the real, will see the ideal and show it forth; he will see the poetry in the prose of life. It is a satisfaction to those interested in the development of German literature to know, that although Hauptmann cannot look beyond the degraded, starved weaver and the avaricious employer, Fulda, on the other hand, sees the idealist striving for and bringing about a better state of affairs; that although we have man depicted as the creature of evolution, without power to resist outside influences, we see him again in the latest novel of Karl Emil Franzos, as Der Wahrheitssucher, the searcher for truth, struggling ceaselessly for truth, never entirely attaining to his ideal, but drawing ever nearer by self-abnegation and the spirit of love to his fellow-man, going on from " strength to strength" unto perfection.

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AIMS AND METHODS IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

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In the preparation of a paper on the subject that has been assigned me, I have endeavored to keep in mind that it is to be read before an assembly of practical teachers, many, if not all of whom are familiar with the best or latest theories advanced on the subject, and who will, therefore, be willing, perhaps, to listen to the expression of a few simple ideas either picked up in the class room or there tried and found practicable and satisfactory. I do not propose to deal elaborately with any phase of the subject. I promise merely some discursive suggestions casually arranged. I shall be very much pleased if I may be permitted to feel that my ideas of method are in accord with yours. If they do not prove so, I trust that I shall be set right by the discussion that may follow.

Before we are in a position to determine how any subject may be effectively taught, we must have some notion of what it may be made the means of accomplishing in the teacher's hands. Grammar has been defined as the science of language. It treats of the general principles that underlie, and the particular rules that regulate the use of language. In the case of the English language, it has to deal with an array of complicated and stubborn facts. But this serves only to enhance the interest of the subject. Now, since Grammar is a science, the teaching of the subject may be made an agency for strengthening and developing the reasoning powers. The pupil is led to observe and analyze the facts, the various forms and relations of words, as used in spoken and written speech, and thereby to discover the laws which govern them. When he has ascertained the principles, he proceeds to trace out their results. The operations of induction and deduction involved in the study of this science serve to give exercise and to impart accuracy to the thinking processes. They make a demand on the powers of observation, reproduction, abstraction, assimilation, discrimination and judgment. The nature of the subject is such that, while in the case of younger pupils the exercises may be made very gentle, in that of more advanced pupils they may be made a severe test of the powers of concentration and mental acuteness.

Grammar has a special fitness for developing the mind, inasmuch as the exercising of thought on the vehicle of thought necessarily involves the exercimade a quickness

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asmuch as v involves the exercising of thought on thought itself. It may, for this reason, be made a valuable medium of testing a pupil's thought capacity, his quickness of perception and depth of insight.

Another necessary result of the study of Grammar is that, through it, language is not acquired or known or used in an imitative way, but with due regard to its significance. Knowledge is gained with more precision, and information is imparted with more intelligibility, and a great step is made towards an intelligent life as opposed to an imitative life.

Mere mention of the practical applications of the science will suffice. Undoubtedly it is an aid to ready, correct, and effective composition. It helps one to guard against those forms of grammatical impropriety so frequently heard in speech. Lastly, it may be made the means of increasing one's range of language and store of historical information.

These constitute at least some of the aims we should have in view in teaching the subject. I have no hesitation whatever in affirming that its utilitarian should be made subordinate to its intellectual ends.

Now let us consider some general methods by which these results may be in a measure attained. It has been already observed that Grammar deals with the general principles that underlie the use of language. Obviously, these principles should be taught from the language. The facts of language as found should be analyzed, and general truths induced. This is the only natural method to pursue, and, if it is not followed, a palpable psychological error is made. Observation and induction are applicable to the science of language as well as to physical science. The various forms and connections of words and combinations are matters of investigation that will lead the mind through the various processes of inductive reasoning.

The advantages that may be said to pertain to this method are these :---

1. Pupils are not permitted to learn the meaning of terms and principles before being put into possession of the particulars and facts from which they are derived.

2. A check is given to that proneness of the mind to be satisfied with loose and vague notions of things, and to that intellectual indolence whose growth is a most field between the satisfied with

whose growth is a most fatal obstacle to clear and accurate knowledge. 3. It quickens observation, and leads the mind into scientific habits of thought.

Of course this science, like all others, tends to grow deductive. When the definitions and principles have been reached, it takes a deductive turn, and traces out their results in speech.

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The point to which I shall now refer is one of considerable importance. Should we teach Grammar from isolated examples or from language as naturally spoken and written? My opinion is decidedly in favor of the latter. My reasons, briefly stated, are these :—

1. Pupils take more interest in the study of language when it occurs in connected speech than when presented in disconnected examples.

2. They are more likely to appreciate the importance of the subject, by being impressed with its utility as a mental exercise.

3. This method enables the teacher more easily to determine a pupil's understanding of a literary passage, or his capacity for understanding it.

4. It conduces to thoroughness in the teaching of Literature.

5. It enables the teacher to detect any vagueness or inaccuracy of conception, and affords a ready means of removing it.

6. Grammatical truths and laws are more likely to be retained by the memory when developed from a literary text than when learned by definition or rule, and illustrated by isolated examples.

7. The method affords opportunities and suggestions to train the judgment by inviting pupils to observe and then describe, or by submitting propositions for their acceptance or rejection.

8. It stimulates attention, and develops self-dependence and individual effort.

I am prepared to admit that some, if not all of the benefits involved in this method may be produced, in a measure, by means of a good use of disconnected examples. More especially would this be the case if such exercises were made to alternate with those I have advocated. Still I am of opinion that the text-book should be used only as a book of reference, for which use it should always be at hand. When an important point has been taken up, reference may be at once made to its treatment in the Grammar. The enunciation or description there given may be read and discussed, if desirable, in the class, and then left with pupils for further consideration. This reference will probably result in giving them a more thorough grasp of the matter, or will tend to fasten it in their memories. During the following lesson their understanding of the points thus assigned for further study should be tested by appropriate questions. After a short interval advantage should be taken of a suitable opportunity of bringing them again to the notice of the class. This method cannot but result in clear and accurate knowledge, if due care is taken. It is true that so many interesting points and tests suggest themselves in the analysis of a literary passage that there is a great danger of passing on before the matter under treatment is fully mastered. But this is not an essential fault of

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When an ce made to obtion there , and then ll probably r will tend sson their should be advantage cain to the and accuy interesta literary he matter al fault of the method. This plan by no means necessitates an immethodical handling of the subject. There is no reason why there should not be as much method in this procedure as there would be were we following a course of lessons laid down in a text-book. It does not follow that it should be the same as that laid down in a text-book. We should aim at first laying an adequate foundation, and then rearing, regularly and symmetrically, a suitable superstructure. Nor does this method dull pupils' conception or diminish their appreciation of the charms of Literature. Grammar isolates attention upon language, with a view to ascertaining what are the facts of the language and the correct rules of expression. It is not concerned with the graces of expression, though it may contribute to them.

The texts used for grammatical study should, I think, illustrate different kinds of poetic and prose composition. This will allow a greater variety of principles of construction and types of diction to come under the observation of the pupil. I think it desirable also to alternate familiar with unfamiliar passages. The study of the former will serve to indicate whether the author's meaning has been accurately grasped or not, while that of the latter will be of special value in testing and developing the reflective powers of the students.

Let us now consider some matters of detail. In teaching this subject we sometimes fail, I fear, to cultivate the sentiment of consistency and truth. Are we always consistent in the definitions and classifications we teach? I may be wrong in my judgments, but I do not believe it possible to lead reasoning pupils to see the suitability of some of the definitions and classifications found in many text-books. A teacher is placed in an awkward position when trying to lead his class to discriminate where there are no real differences and to assimilate where there are no apparent resemblances. When pupils meet the word "such," in, say, "I cannot believe such a story," they naturally classify it among the demonstratives or adjectives of quality rather than among indefinite pronominals. They have grave doubts as to the propriety of calling "every" either a pronoun or pronominal adjective, or of placing "both" among the quantitative indefinites. They do not seem to take kindly to classifying "yon" as a pronominal adjective, or "could," "must," or "ought," as auxiliary verbs. May we expect pupils to arrive, by observation and induction, to the conclusion that "prepositions are words placed before substantives, by means of which we show the relation in which things, their attributes, and actions stand to other things;" or "that an adjective denotes the quality of a noun?" Is it reasonable to suppose that their reasoning will lead them to the con-

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clusion that "subordinate conjunctions are those which unite subordinate clauses to the principal clause of a sentence?"

Accuracy of classification and definition is particularly important in English Grammar. The usages of our language are so varied and complicated that we must be very careful to make and define its classes with the greatest possible precision, otherwise, distinctions will be confounded and embarrassing confusion will prevail. Upon this accuracy will depend also, very largely, the value of the study as a mental training. The unguarded acceptance of wrong conclusions does not tend to develop close observation or correct reasoning. Until pupils have had considerable experience in the inductive operations of this science, it might be well to accept, in lieu of definitions, descriptions or sets of distinguishing features. When they have learned all the features of any class, and not before, they are in a position to enunciate, under the teacher's direction, an adequate definition.

In the first grammatical classification of language, we adopt function as a basis. With this basis, we seem to have four classes-nominative, or subjective, predicative, qualificative, and conjunctive words. Three of these classes have two sub-classes, and so we have seven parts of speech. But we have so far proceeded on the assumption that words have but one function, which is obviously not always the case. Parts of speech are in their nature somewhat analogous to sentences. We classify sentences into simple, simple-complex, compound and compound-complex, according to the number and character of the clauses composing them. The same classification will hold, I think, in the case of words. We find many words of only one function, simple parts of speech. There are other words of but one function, but with some distinguishing feature of another part of speech, simple-complex parts of speech, as, for example, participles, or verbal adjectives. Then we meet with words performing two distinct functions at once, compound parts of speech, as conjunctive pronouns, adverbial nouns, etc. Lastly, we have words performing two distinct functions and possessing at the same time some feature or features pertaining to another part of speech, compound-complex parts of speech, as conjunctive pronominal adjectives. This main classification of words, I think sound, and I have found it useful.

The sub-division of the parts of speech will not be according to the same kind of distinction as was the first division of words. There is another division of words,—into notional and relational. In the case of notional parts of speech, the classification is according to general signification. The number of classes of each will depend on the gram-

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matical purposes that may be served by the classification and the benefits to be derived from it as a mental exercise. The generally accepted classification of nouns into proper, common, abstract, collective and material, seems to be very satisfactory. The last class has grammatical peculiarities similar to those of the abstract noun, from which, however, it differs in signification. A division of adjectives which I like very much is, qualitative, quantitative, numeral and relational. The last class differs from the others in indicating mere relation, and is composed of demonstratives, relatives, and interroga-A classification of verbs that would meet the necessary tives. conditions and prove satisfactory, I should think, is-transitive intransitive, passive, copula, or verbs of incomplete predication, and auxiliary. I see no strong reason why voice should any longer be regarded, in English Grammar, as an inflection. Passive verbs differ from others in meaning and construction, as do transitive verbs. Verbs of incomplete predication are distinguished not only by construction but by expressing or containing the notion of "being." And would it not do to include among auxiliaries only those that do not in themselves predicate anything of the subject, but perform the duty that would be performed in a synthetic language by inflections? The classification of adverbs does not serve any very important grammatical purposes. The only noticeable distinction of usage is, that adverbs of degree modify adjectives and adverbs. But to call the attention of pupils to the logical purpose served by an adverb, imparts an excellent mental discipline, and cannot but aid them in giving clear and intelligent expression to their own thoughts.

When we pass to the relational parts of speech, distinctions of signification will not hold as a basis of sub-division. Pronouns are classified according to the kind of relation they indicate; prepositions and coordinate conjunctions according to the kind of relation existing between the notions they unite; and subordinate conjunctions according to the modes of dependence of the clauses they introduce upon the words to which they are related.

This matter may appear to have been unduly emphasized by the writer. But if the chief reason for teaching the subject of Grammar be the mental training it affords, we are not likely to attend too carefully to the sub-classification of words, a mental exercise to which we should attach no inconsiderable importance in our class rooms. Let us by all means be consistent and reasonable in this interesting department of the subject.

My experience has led me to observe a strong tendency on the part

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of pupils, when classifying words, to follow the clue of some external mark rather than to exercise their intelligence. For example, they detect proper nouns by the capital, and abstract nouns or adverbs of means by the termination. A similar tendency is shown to classify words according to habit rather than use. These faults may be effectually removed only by training pupils to think when parsing. It is well to require them frequently to give reasons for their classification.

Another subject that should be thoughtfully treated by the teacher of Grammar is inflection. Clearness and elegance of style require precise discrimination of the meanings and uses of inflected forms and their substitutes, while a very profitable mental exercise is afforded by the study of these differences. Inflection pertains to words because of their function and general signification. When pupils have learned to distinguish these with ease and accuracy, they are in a position to study the changes of form depending thereon. Inflection should not be taught, therefore, until the definitions have been thoroughly mastered. But a general knowledge of it should precede the study of classification of the parts of speech, for, as has already been stated, the number of sub-divisions depends largely on usage in regard to grammatical forms and constructions.

Inflection gives rise to mental operations similar to those of definition and classification, and should, like them, be taught inductively. It may be expected, of course, that wrong inferences will be drawn, because of the numerous inconsistencies and irregularities inflection presents in our language.

A question of some importance that naturally arises here is, under what head should gender and comparison be treated? There are comparatively few nouns that indicate the distinction of sex by use of distinctive suffixes, and these suffixes are not actively in use. It would seem scarcely consistent, then, to regard gender as an inflection. Gender ought, it seems to me, to be taken up in connection with the analysis of words and the study of the historical development of our language. Here it will prove in place and of interest.

As for comparison, reasons might, I think, be given for treating it as inflection. (1) It does not serve to form a distinct class of adjectives. (2) Degree is a property that pertains to quality. (3) The suffixes of comparison, with substitutes, are active agents. The fact that comparative and superlative forms formerly served as stems, to which inflections were added, should by no means be ignored. But this does not seem a satisfactory reason why, considering the present condition of our language, comparison may not be justly treated as inflection. A kno of concor application ourselves concord write, con life will spent in 1 laws of se subject is along this

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ating it as adjectives. suffixes of that comto which this does condition section. A knowledge of inflection enables the pupil to proceed to the study of concord. Now this department of the science is one whose practical applications are very important. But all of us have no doubt convinced ourselves by repeated failures that the mere study of the principles of concord will by no means lead our boys and girls to speak, or even write, correctly. Nothing but constant drill throughout their school life will produce that result. Time will be put to good use that is spent in habituating them by constant practice to observe the ordinary laws of selection and agreement. Every teacher, no matter what the subject is, ought to take advantage of every opportunity to train pupils along this line.

I shall do no more than simply refer to the excellent mental training afforded by the study of sense-constructions, and of those in which sense has been sacrificed to form, as well as to that of the various phases of subjective, possessive and objective relation of nouns and pronouns.

In the analysis of sentences special attention should be paid to the connecting links between dependent clauses and words, their usefulness and their exact function; to the precise indication of the relation of dependent clauses; to the logical values of adjectival and adverbial clauses and the appropriate naming of these values; and to the classification of adverbial clauses according to meaning. These are all useful mental exercises. I would suggest the desirability of making "sentence," "clause" and "phrase," distinct grammatical terms, and of giving to each a well-defined meaning, thereby removing all likelihood of bewilderment or doubt concerning the meaning of the words.

Etymology, another department of the subject, includes the sources of our vocabulary and the composition of words. Its study results in leading pupils to use their words more intelligently and correctly, in enlarging their vocabulary, and in improving their style of composition. I scarcely think the best results will be gained by taking it up by itself. It should be taught inductively as far as possible, and as often as suitable opportunities permit.

The earlier stages of our language, the changes in the meaning, sound and form of words, and the general principles that have been in operation, should be taught in more advanced classes, and from suitable texts.

A branch of the subject which may be made very interesting and which does not receive, perhaps, that amount of attention which its importance deserves, is our alphabet. Is it not reasonable to say that High School pupils, at least, should be familiar with the merits and

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defects of our alphabetic system? I would suggest the following as some of the more important points for consideration: the origin of our alphabet, the names and classes and sounds of vowels, the vowel scale, the digraphs, the names, sounds, classes and sub-classes of consonants, and the aids resorted to by lexicographers to meet difficulties arising through the imperfections of the system.

In conclusion, I would briefly add that whatever differences of view there may exist among us as to the relative importance of any branch of the subject, or as to details of method in teaching it, we probably all grant that the science is one whose study is of interest and value as a mental training, and that its practical applications, though by no means limited or unimportant, must be considered a subordinate end.

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NATURAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.

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T. H. SMYTH, M.A., B.Sc., TORONTO.

In studying the nature of Electricity we have to examine all the varied phenomena which are exhibited in Static and Dynamic Electricity such as the first great Law of Electrostatics that you cannot produce positive electrification without an equal quantity of negative also; or that electricity always flows in a closed circuit, the same quantity crossing each section of that circuit.

At one time electricity was believed to be a fluid; and the question was asked—How can we explain the motion of a fluid in a conducting wire? Later it was believed that electricity is a form of energy—but modern authorities on the subject assert that although electricity may be a form of matter—it is not a form of energy. "It is quite true that electricity under pressure or in motion represents energy, and the same thing is true of water or air, and we do not deny them to be forms of matter. Electrification is a result of work done—it can be created and destroyed by an act of work."

In what respect does electricity behave like a substance? When a charge of frictional electricity is introduced into a hollow sphere a precisely equal quantity at once passes through the walls to the outside. This shows that you can move it from place to place but that it goes back instantly to the body from which you take it, so that no portion of space can be more or less filled with it than it already is; that it is impossible by any rise of potential to squeeze a trace of electricity into the interior of a cavity, for if a charge be introduced a precisely equal quantity passes to the outside. Hence, electricity in this respect behaves like an incompressible substance or fluid. It must also occupy all space. No part or space is free from its share. Now if air had been incompressible and inexpansible, how could we recognize the existence of such an all permeating fluid?

1st. By being able to pump it out of one elastic bag into another not out of one bucket into another—if we lived at the bottom of the sea we would never think about filling or emptying buckets. One could, however, pump water out of one elastic bag into another connected with it. This explains how when we withdraw positive elec-

tricity from a substance that an equal quantity of negative is formed, for as the fluid is withdrawn from one which is then negative so it moves into the other elastic bag which in consequence becomes positively charged—one has less, the other more, than the normal amount —yet the volume of the ethereal ocean or electrical fluid is in no way affected.

2nd. We can recognize the existence of an incompressible inexpansible all permeating liquid by winds or currents. A frictionless damper in an endless stove pipe would be deflected so as to occupy a plane in the axis of the pipe, which is analogous to the deflection of a galvanometer in some degrees.

3rd. We can recognize such a fluid by making vortices and whirls in the fluid, and observing the mutual influence of these vortices.

4th. By undulatory phenomena excited in the medium or fluid by some source of vibratory energy.

If electricity were such a fluid substance it should if disconnected from matter exhibit inertia—this is uncertain.

Again, in an incompressible fluid the velocity and length of wave would both be infinite.

These distinctions between electricity and the incompressible fluid are not fully met, but if we accept the hypothesis that electricity is a fluid entangled in the ether, rather than the ether itself, we can talk about it as something which is analogous to what would exhibit the various phenomena of resistance, disruption of dielectric, conduction, induction, etc.

To gain a conception of how the phenomena of Dynamic Electricity are produced, it is better first to inquire what takes place in a dielectric such as air, glass or India rubber. It is well to remember that it is the fact of insulation that produces the phenomena of electrostatics. Insulators such as air are like elastic partitions, conductors, cavities or channels, offering some resistance to the flow of the fluid through them. This inversion of the ordinary experience of matter, viz., that metals, etc., instead of offering obstruction to motion of matter really becomes the medium of conduction, tends somewhat to confuse our thoughts. The fluid which is entangled in insulators is free to move in conductors. This is the reason we notice the pressure or potential of the fluid to be uniform throughout an uninsulated conductor, while in an insulator such as the dielectric air or resin the potential may be much greater in one plane or point than another, and the difference of pressure produces strain of the dielectric because it is not able to get through-the fluid is not free to move as in a copper wire or brass

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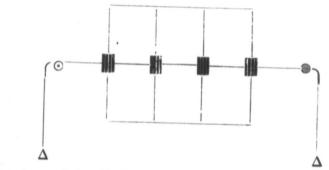
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sphere. The elastic (elastic more or less to electricity) walls of the dielectric yield to the strain to a greater or less extent, and if the difference of potential be very great as in the positive and negative charges on the tin foils of a Leyden jar; disruption of the dielectric glass resin or air will result.

It was Faraday who taught us to look to the dielectric as the arena of electric phenomena, *i.e.* to the insulating material surrounding the conductor, the latter is a mere bridge or island or oasis in the all pervading field.

When a body is charged as, e.g., an uninsulated Leyden jar, the outer coat is separated from the inner by a glass dielectric, which is in a state of strain, and in general any body charged with electricity may constitute the inner coat—the outer coat is somewhere, usually the walls of the room with the air between them, as the dielectric. Imagine a series of beads attached by strings to beams and a string passing through the centres of the beads and over two pulleys with pans attached to each extremity.



If a greater weight (E. M. F.) is put in one pan, the equilibrium is disturbed. The atoms of matter (beads) will be moved if the string is fastened at their centres, or there will be a tendency to move, and this produces the strain in the dielectric. If there be a slight displacement of the atoms, one side will have more string than the other. One side is positively, the other negatively charged. But when the strain is too great the elastic breaks, causing disruptive discharge; or some of the supports "may yield viscously" or be imperfectly elastic and permit **a** gradual extra displacement of the cord; this displacement will, when the E. M. F. be removed, gradually return to the normal condition, hence we have what are called residual charges.

By taking in imagination another step we can arrive at a more correct or at least more plausible theory of what takes place in a compound substance such as glass or water. Instead of having the beads attached to beams by cords let us imagine them attached to each other and

representing the electropositive and electronegative elements of the substance, and if these cords are displaced alter-

nately in opposite directions, and if they be regarded as representing positive and negative /

electricity, there will evidently be a shearing stress applied to each molecule, which if strong enough may result in the electrolytic disruption of the dielectric. Marsh gas, e.g., is a dielectric—when an electric spark is passed through it carbon is deposited at the one electrode, and most probably hydrogen at the other—each molecule has been strained in opposite directions, and if the direction of the current is changed carbon is deposited on the other electrode. Many other gases which are apparently not affected by the spark undergo similar dissociation, but their constituents recombine as the temperature of the dielectric lowers.

This, no doubt, also explains the permanent electrolysis of water and other compound liquids and solids. In electrolytic action electricity travels with matter, the electropositive atoms of the compound go in what is called the direction of the current-the electronegative in the opposite direction. When the hydrogen atoms, for example, move in the direction of the currents as water is decomposed in a voltameter it carries with it the charge of positive electricity and the oxygen atom carries twice as much negative electricity in the opposite direction; each parts with its charge at its platinum electrode. The charge of one monad atom as of hydrogen, e.g., is the smallest known portion of electricity, and is a real natural unit. It is about the hundred trillionth of a coulomb. In the electrolyte since there is actual motion comparable to the disruptive discharge the elastic connections of the beads have disappeared-there is no strain-the shearing being practically unhindered. The atoms are therefore not connected by the elastic attachments to each other, but they are still connected to the cord.

Electrolysis is, therefore, not exactly similar to the action in the rest of the external conductor in which the current is said to travel. It is not a case of true conduction, nor is it exactly the same as disruptive discharge. In a copper wire to continue the analogy the cord slips through the beads, while in disruptive discharge they go with the cord and the elastics snap. In the dielectric we get displacement, and it is charged when an E. M. F. is applied; in the electrolyte we get a continuous flow (pith-ball movement) and decomposition : in the case of copper wire we get continuous flow accompanied by heat.

What happens then when a current is supposed to flow through a

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solid conductor such as a copper wire? To study this we should notice some of the effects of a current:

(1) The current in a conductor deflects a needle anywhere in its neighborhood, showing that some action must be going on outside the conductor.

(2) A current in a helix surrounding a soft iron or steel core makes a magnet of them—the former a temporary, the latter a permanent magnet.

(3) A circuit in which a current is flowing tends to enlarge itself so as to enclose the greatest possible area.

(4) Conductors in the neighborhood of an electric circuit experience momentary electric disturbances every time a current in it is started or stopped or varied in strength.

(5) The same thing happens even with a circuit conveying a steady current if the distance between it and a conductor is made to vary.

(6) The effects of self induction can be almost abolished by doubling a covered wire conveying the current closely on itself, or better by laying a direct and return ribbon face to face; whereas a coil of wire without or better with an iron core intensifies these effects.

If the electric energy be outside, which is most likely as in the wire it is dissipated as heat, how can we conceive of it as driving a motor or doing work at any point outside the wire. Such a conception is possible. Think of a cable car moving because attached to a rotating chain. It moves because the chain moves, and the energy is in the chain; but compare (without thinking of electricity at all) the case of a trolley moving. It moves not because the wire moves—the wire does not move—but because energy outside the wire causes it to move. Just so can we conceive of the electric energy of a current being outside and surrounding the wire.

The phenomena of magnetism will assist in making the condition of the dielectric clearer; for everything that can be done with a permanent magnet, may be shown with a coiled wire conveying a current.

The magnet is not magnetized as a whole, but each particle is magnetized—has its circulating currents which, like the earth, continues in motion—because perfect conduction means no resistance: and most likely the atoms conduct perfectly, just as we know there is necessarily no degradation of molecular motion producing temperature. This rotation about an axis is, as is well known, not confined to the steel or iron of the magnet. The magnetic field—the lines of force pointing in every direction and forming closed curves with the corresponding lines of the opposite pole of the magnet—exist in every magnet. They

correspond to the closed concentric lines of force which surround a wire through which a current is passing. So that each atom whether in the steel or in the air is the seat of a whirl of electricity which takes place in a plane at right angles to the so-called lines of force. If we consider one line of force surrounded by a successive row of atoms possessing the electric whirl, the tendency would be to shorten it—and the more rapid the whirl the shorter. Ends of lines of force are therefore drawn toward each other while sides are repelled by the swelling outwards.

In a magnet if the atoms adjacent to each other possess whirls, the sides adjacent to each, will be moving in opposite directions if the whirls are all moving clockwise, let us say; and this would soon cause them to stop each other. Adjacent whirls must, therefore, be moving in opposite directions in order to coöperate. They must represent positive and negative electricity alternately. Imagine them to be geared wheels rotating about the closed curves as axes, then each turns the next, and so the spin gets propagated through the medium.

"When all the wheel work is revolving properly, there is nothing of the nature of an electric current moving in any direction, for at every point of contact of two wheels, the positive and negative electricities are going at the same rate in the same direction, and there is no currents at all." But if one set is standing still we have a current. Now, if some of the wheels have no gearing but simply slip when the geared wheels touch them, we have a current. A line of slip among the wheels corresponds, therefore, to a linear current, and this line of slip is supposed to exist in a closed conductor of a circuit, such as a metallic wire around which the vortex rings comparable to the "lines of force" of magnets have their geared wheels rotating on the rings as axes. If there were no ungeared wheels, the geared wheels of the innermost vortex would stop each other. It is for this reason that there is no current when dielectrics such as air, alone join the positive and negative electrodes of a galvanic cell. If a row slip, then the direct and return circuit are on opposite sides of the row. If a large area of any shape with no slip inside it is enclosed by a line of slip, then this gives us a circuit of any shape but always closed.

The wheels of a conductor are imperfectly cogged together, and so in the variable stages of a magnetic field, while its spin is either increasing or decreasing, the wheels of the conductor only rotate slowly at first, and therefore a current is the result—it is only when they all move at the same rate that no resistance to the full current is offered; hence, when a current is first made, a self-induction or lagging takes place--ag of the co therefore

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er, and so is either ate slowly n they all s offered; ng takes place--again when it stops the inertia of the imperfectly cogged wheels of the conductor prevent the current stopping at once, and we get, therefore, the extra current at break.

In secondary circuits for the same reason a current is set up when the primary circuit is closed, because the dielectric wheels cannot at once communicate their full force to the imperfectly cogged wheels of the conductor; it is necessarily in a direction opposite to that of the primary circuit. When the primary circuit is broken, the inside layer of the cogged wheels of the conductor will slip so as to set up in the dielectric rotations which produce the direct induced currents at break.

If a broadside moving line of force cut across a conductor, its motion is delayed for its wheels slip and only gradually get up a whirl inside the ill-geared substance, thus causing an induced current, as in the dynamo.

This provisional theory will, in some measure at least, direct, in all too brief a manner, attention to whatever may be the real nature of induction currents—a subject which, although very fully worked out, is by no means exhausted as a field of inquiry and study.

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A. STEVENSON, B.A., ARTHUR.

A teacher is benefited greatly by having a clear idea in his mind of the end to be attained in respect to every subject he is called upon to teach. This will not only give him more interest in his work and make it more agreeable to him, but it will also lead to more definite and more valuable results in the development of his pupils.

Now by far the greater number of the pupils of our High Schools do not continue their work beyond that prescribed for the Primary Examination. It is certainly wise, therefore, to arrange that the course of studies and the character of the teaching in the lower forms should be, as far as possible, of such a nature as to be of the greatest benefit in every way to this large class of pupils.

There can be no doubt that, as compared with the study of foreign or dead languages, the study of science is potentially more beneficial for the majority of High School pupils, not only for those who do not go beyond the primary standing, but also for most of those who expect to teach on second or first class certificates. It remains to us as teachers to see that the science subjects are effectively handled.

In respect to Botany it may be safely said that primary pupils in general do not get nearly all the good out of this subject that is to be desired and that the subject would yield under broad and liberal treatment. It is a well-founded criticism of our system of public instruction in general that it is lacking in influences tending on the one hand to the refinement of the feelings and on the other to the cultivation of ability in the ready application of scientific principles to the affairs of everyday life. In other words, our education is not sufficiently æsthetic, and it is not sufficiently practical. It is to be feared that this criticism is entirely applicable to a good deal of our work in Botany, though this is a subject that has both æsthetic and practical applications of a most marked character.

First, then, we teach Botany for the most part as a pure science, and neglect the means which our material affords for the cultivation of taste and feeling. Yet there are wants in our nature that cannot be satisfied by the intellectual results of science, and knowledge alone does not suffice for happiness. If we were beings of pure intellect it would be different, but we have capacities for feeling which should be developed and refined if we would attain the highest good. What vulgar ambitions this cultiv

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ambitions, what pitiful vanities would we not escape if we only had this cultivation in a sufficient degree !

Next to fine literature, Botany is the subject on our school programme along with which can best be given some measure of cultivation of the taste and feelings. And as in literature, so in Botany, it is not enough to constitute the best results that our pupils understand the matter they are dealing with, they must also be taught to appreciate it, that is, to feel it and to enjoy it, and so be permanently influenced in character by it. Formerly, as you know, the study of literature consisted in grammatical analysis and parsing, in root-grubbing and learning dictionary definitions. But we have changed all that, and the change was immensely for the better. A change similar in kind, though not so sweeping in degree, is called for in the teaching of Botany.

Let us cease to regard a plant as merely an aggregation or organization of cells of various forms and functions. Let us anoint our eyes that we may see that a plant is a perfection of nature, a wonder, a glory, a thing of beauty, and a joy forever. Truly Solomon in all his splendor was not arrayed like one of these.

Nobody who has not experienced it, can at all imagine the pleasure that Nature provides for all classes of people whose minds have been turned to the observation of plant life as a source of interest and happiness. Mungo Park, the first great explorer of the Niger river region, tells us that on one occasion when worn out with physical exertion and despair, he had actually lain down to die, the sight of a little flower near him so affected his feelings that he was encouraged to rise and go forward to further achievements. One of the most delicate and affecting stories in all French literature, describes the comfort and mental elevation that was brought to a political prisoner by the companionship of a simple wayside plant in his dungeon. In the lonely rooms of poverty in our great cities, in the abodes of degradation and wretchedness, there may be oftentimes found some alleviation of misery from the silent ministry of flowers. Many hospitals, too, are now no longer but dismal prison houses of pain. Plants and shrubs abound within and without, and exert a cheering and healing influence on both the bodies and the minds of the unfortunates who are confined there.

But leaving these special and comparatively exceptional cases and coming to the circumstances and affairs of everyday people, it may be maintained that we cannot do a greater service to those who are going out into life, whether as professional men, as merchants, as mechanics, or as laborers in any other department of life than to give them such an

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interest in plants and plant life, that they will spend some of their time in the cultivation of a garden of flowers, fruits, or vegetables. In that delightful and very refreshing book, "My Summer in a Garden," the author humorously speaks of a common vegetable garden as a real means of grace, inasmuch as time spent there tends to the eradication of certain moral defects and the development of various excellences. He is probably right. Garden work helps many people not only to endure life, but even to enjoy it in spite of daily causes of exasperation. Nor does it really matter very much in many cases whether the owner of the garden gets a money value out of it equivalent to the labor and expense he puts on it. He will be well repaid in satisfactions of a subtler nature than money can buy.

The lives of our future farmers especially would be much easier and pleasanter, if now in their school days they could get such instruction in Botany, and have such a direction given to their tastes and observation, that new interests would be brought into their lives and new pleasures gained from the objects that surround them. Many young men leave the farms and crowd into the cities, and many others who remain at home are equally dissatisfied chiefly because of what seems to them the entire unloveliness of their surroundings on the farm, and the absolute lack of any reasonable ground for interest therein. This deplorable condition of mind could be remedied in many cases by some small measure of scientific education in which Botany would occupy a prominent part.

The elements of beauty in plants are color, form, structure, and texture, and adaptation of parts. Until of recent years botanists were inclined to ignore, if not to despise color, and to regard it almost as an accidental property of no value, because it was of little or no service to them in their classifications. The botanists of old times forgot that plants serve other ends in the economy of Nature than merely to provide material for grouping and naming. Yet not the least of the services of plants to humanity is that of imparting pleasure by their beauty; and in many cases color is the chief factor in producing that result. Now, too, when we know how useful to themselves and to us in contributing to fructification and distribution are these bright colors of flowers and fruits, our pleasure therein is immeasurably heightened.

As to the appreciation of beauty in form there is a considerable measure of cultivation to be derived from the practice of drawing the parts of plants if the work be carefully done. But we might as well expect students to become legible and beautiful writers by the practice obtained taste in f This draw study of quently b the cultitaste at a and much

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nsiderable awing the ht as well e practice obtained in taking down college lectures, as to look for the cultivation of taste in form by the methods frequently practiced in botanical drawing. This drawing seems to be looked on as being merely an assistance in the study of structure and in classification, and so the drawings are frequently but the roughest of sketches. Yet it would be far better for the cultivation of the intellectual perceptions only, not to speak of taste at all, if the drawings required, were in some cases much fewer and much better.

Regarding the study of structure and texture for æsthetic ends great benefit is to be obtained by a frequent use of the microscope. Philosophers recognize wonder and admiration as the foundations of all human development, and any means therefore of arousing these feelings must be regarded as of great value for educational purposes. The beauties and wonders in plants which are revealed by the microscope appeal to even the dullest and lowest minds. What a revelation of a new world, of a new heaven no less than a new earth, is opened up to a pupil when he first looks through a compound instrument at it may be but a jagged splinter of firewood, or a fragment of onion or potato, or a leaf of the wayside weed he has so long trodden on and despised !

A perception of adaptation or fitness frequently enters into our feelings of appreciation of the appearance of objects. Now, plants throughout, but especially in the floral organs, display the most wonderful adaptations. We all know this of course, but we do not teach it enough because the matter is but barely referred to in our text-book, and because the examiners do not make it a test. Yet it would seem in the case of many plants that we have but the dry bones of the study left if we neglect to dwell upon the exquisite inter-relations of color and form on the one hand with function on the other.

Closely connected with this feature of the study is another which requires more attention than it frequently receives. Nothing is capable of arousing higher interest in Botany than the study of the modifications that have taken place, and are taking place in plants both in form and function, and the influence of heredity and environment in perpetuating a variation once entered upon. The introduction of the theory of evolution into High School Botany classes has the same enlivening and energizing effects as it had in the scientific world outside.

Some persons may consider that the æsthetic cultivation to be derived from the study of plants in the manner just outlined, is something entirely to one side of the practical applications of the study which are to be considered in the second part of this paper. But it is not so.

The results here, too, are most practical. For beauty is a use, and one of the highest of uses, and the satisfactions obtained therefrom are among the most practical values in life, if not in the market.

Yet, now, in the second place, and using the word practical in the ordinary sense, it remains to show the advantages of bringing our Botany teaching into direct and vital connection with the practical affairs of the garden, the orchard and the farm, and with the processes and results of the culture carried on there. And if we make our study not one of observation only, but of wide and varied experiment, as every teacher and pupil may do, so much the better. If teachers themselves are alive to the significance of botanical knowledge in relation to human welfare and progress, they will be able to arouse much greater interest in the study among their pupils by pointing out to them, whenever opportunity offers, the bearings of their work on practical affairs. Such opportunities will come frequently if we are on the lookout for them. Let me refer to some topics that have come in my way with a brief outline of the mode of dealing with them.

In my part of the country the ash-man is a common sight on the roads all winter. We learn that these ashes are shipped to various cities in the United States, and that they are extensively advertised by dealers in fertilizers as "Canada Unleached Hardwood Ashes," and that they are sold to fruit growers all over the country, even as far as Florida, for \$20 a ton and upwards. We have already learned that potash and phosphorus are found in the tissues of plants, and are very necessary as ingredients in the soil where plants are to be grown. We now learn that our ashes contain from six to seven per cent. of potash and nearly two per cent. of phosphorus, and that these substances are especially valuable as fertilizers for fruits, for grass, and for potatoes, corn and onions. Now, it does not take a very sharp boy to see that if it pays the Americans to give a dollar a hundred and upwards for our ashes to fertilize their crops, it certainly is folly for us to sell them to the ash-man at ten cents a hundred so long as we have anything that needs fertilizing.

Canadians have been selling an immense quantity of hay to English buyers during the past year or more, owing to shortages in the grass crop in the old land. The prices have been good, and the uninstructed farmer looks upon the business as profitable. But we learn that for every ton of hay he hauls off his farm, he is taking away twenty-five pounds of nitrogen, eighteen pounds of potash and ten pounds of phosphoric acid, and that as these materials are really worth, in current market values \$5.50, the imaginary profits entirely vanish, and that the farmer is i himself by food.

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to English n the grass ninstructed rn that for twenty-five nds of phosin current nd that the farmer is in reality rapidly and surely impoverishing both his farm and himself by depriving the soil of its most valuable supplies of plant food.

Next, it may be mentioned that at the present low prices of wheat and barley, the nitrogenous and mineral constituents that are taken off the farm when these grains are sold are worth about forty per cent. of what the farmer receives for his crop, so that grain farming, too, is easily seen to be an impoverishing business. It strikes a pupil forcibly as a cheerful contrast to all this to be shown that the farmer who is wise enough to concentrate his energies in producing fat cattle or milk for the cheese factory loses only about ten per cent. of his receipts in soil fertility, and he is struck even more forcibly with the fact that the farmer who sells neither hay nor grain, nor fat cattle, nor milk, but cream and cream only, as some are now doing where creameries are located, that this prudent farmer loses of soil fertility only a trivial one-tenth of one per cent. of his receipts for his sales. For, as butter contains no potash or phosphorus, and only an inconsiderable fraction of nitrogenous matter, the butter farmer loses none of these valuable substances and his land is never exhausted. The cow now appears as really a most wonderful machine for converting carbonic acid and water into gilt edge butter. In the process she returns to the soil as a by-product of the machine the most of the potash and phosphorus and nitrogen contained in her food, but the carbon and hydrogen which this food contains, and which cost the farmer nothing but the handling, since they were drawn by the plants from the inex haustible reservoir of the air, these his cow manufactures into butter globules for him and for us.

It might be worth while to show that this matter of soil exhaustion produced by unscientific farming has issues that are even of greater importance than those mentioned. For not only does the quantity of the crop produced on an exhausted soil become smaller and smaller, but there is a deterioration in the quality of the product as well. Wheat grown on impoverished soil is deficient in nitrogenous matter and phosphates, and bread made therefrom is, consequently, deficient in the most valuable food constituents, in the substances which build up not only the bony and muscular framework, but nourish the brain and nervous system as well. Since it is indisputable that physically at least, and perhaps mentally also, we are what we eat, it becomes a matter of immense importance to us that what we eat are the best things for us.

And now, we may notice a discovery which, in its practical bearings,

is among the most important that have been made in all science, the discovery recently fully confirmed that leguminous plants have the power of assimilating and fixing free nitrogen through the medium of root tubercles and bacterial action. All our cultivated plants require large supplies of nitrogenous matter, and they cannot procure it directly from the air for themselves. Soils are usually deficient in nitrogenous matters since these are readily soluble and run off the surface or leach away into the subsoil. Fertilizers of this nature have hitherto been most costly to procure, and most difficult to retain in the soil. The guano deposits of the Pacific Islands were exhausted long ago, and the sodium nitrate beds of Chili are being used up at a tremendous rate in response to the general demand for a nitrogen fertilizer. But we need have no fear now of a lack of supply. We set our clover plants to work to gather nitrogen from the air and store it in their roots, stems and leaves. Then we plow down the clover sod and the decaying structures furnish a rich supply of this fertilizing element for any crop that follows.

In dealing with the conditions of plant life it is well to dwell on the fact that each species and variety even requires conditions of its own for its best development, and that it is the object of scientific culture to discover and provide those conditions as nearly as possible. Thus, recent experimentation has proved incontestably that flat cultivation is incomparably the best for corn and potatoes. The old-fashioned and long continued ridge or hill culture destroyed many of the most useful fibres of the root system, for these extend out much farther from the plant than is usually supposed. It is now known also that frequent shallow cultivation will do very much to prevent the ill effects of drought in the case of all crops where it can be applied, and especially with fruits. The top soil thus kept loose acts as a mulch checking evaporation, and conserving the moisture beneath. The best results yet reached in apple culture have been attained by keeping the ground fallow, thus retaining all the fertility and moisture of the soil for the trees alone, and preventing the waste of this moisture from the open ground by frequent shallow culture. Thus the trees get the benefit of the immense quantity of moisture that would have been transpired through the leaves of the other crop, and besides the frequent stirrings of the soil have made the supply of plant food stored therein more soluble and more availance for the use of the trees.

Another interesting discovery bearing on the conditions of plant growth has regard to the beet crop—a crop which is of exceeding importance since it not only yields three-fifths of the sugar supply of the w cattle foo the beet parative been exp both for increased

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of the world, but is becoming more and more recognized as the best of cattle foods for dairy purposes. Innumerable analysis of cross-sections of the beet root have shown that the secretion of sugar goes on to a comparatively small extent in the upper end of the root when that has been exposed to the light, and that consequently the value of the root both for sugar manufacture and for feeding purposes is very much increased when top of the root is kept covered by soil.

The processes of pollination are a source of never failing interest to young people. There are several facts of a practical bearing that will bear emphasizing in dealing with this topic. Thus, it will not do to take it for granted now-a-days that flowers that have both stamens and pistils are necessarily self-fertile, or even that any amount of cross fertilization among plants of the same variety with perfect flowers will avail to produce a fair crop of fruit? Bartlett pears, for instance, are notoriously unproductive unless their blossoms are fertilized from some other variety. Yet Bartlett blossoms are perfect and produce an abundance of pollen, which, however, is for the most part impotent on Bartlett pistils. Several kinds of apples have the same defect.

Such facts as these are beginning to be known to all scientific growers. But why should they not be known also in every family that has a boy or girl studying Botany in our schools? It certainly would be worth while to take up many such facts in our classes if it were only to create a stronger bond between the family and the school.

Some interesting investigations have recently been made in connection with the wonderful production of pollen in Indian corn. We know, of course, that all wind-fertilized plants are very prolific in pollen, and that this condition is necessitated by the great waste involved in the process of wind-fertilization. But it has recently been shown to be probable that in the case of corn grown as we grow it, with plants in regular order in large masses, the amount of pollen produced is at least twice as much as is necessary for full fertilization. Now, the production of pollen is an exceedingly exhaustive process, and it would seem reasonable to suppose that the crop of grain might be increased if this waste of plant resource could be stopped. This has actually been shown to be true in some cases at least. In a series of experiments carried on at Cornell University during the past four years, the tassels or staminate flower clusters were removed from every alternate row at the earliest stage possible, with the remarkable result that there was an increase in the total crop on an average of the four years of over twenty per cent. The increased yield of the whole crop was entirely due to the increase on the detasselled rows, and this is readily explained by

the fact that the plants here being relieved from pollen producing, all their energy was applied in the direction of seed-development.

Darwin discovered long ago that atrophy of seeds was frequently accompanied by a gain in size and quality of fruit. It is now an object of ambition among scientific fruit-growers to obtain by selection and cultivation varieties with small seeds or none. Recent triumphs in this direction are the California Navel Seedless orange, and the Lincoln Coreless pear. Great efforts are being made to reduce the size of the seeds in raspberries. In tomatoes the pulpy placentæ and outside walls have been developed and the seeding quality discouraged until now two varieties have been produced, the Ponderosa and the Crimson Cushion, in which the quantity of seed is said to be less than one-third of that produced by the varieties in cultivation but a few years ago. We have long had in the market the seedless fruits of the Grecian grape currant and the Sultana raisin, and we know that as the result of being continually reproduced from cuttings alone the banana has lost the power of producing seeds. But our chief hope of improvement in this as in other directions is from natural variations shown either in seedling or branches. Florists are always on the lookout for "sport" branches on their old standard sorts of roses for instance, and as a result we find distinct varieties being introduced nearly every year. Our young botanists ought to be instructed in such a way on these points that they could be on the lookout for useful variations and know them when they see them. Much good would result in the future if all young people could be so educated, and much good has been missed in the past because we and our fathers were not so educated. As a simple instance I may refer to the story of a neighbor of mine who says that when he was a boy forty years ago there grew on his father's farm a seedling apple of good quality that was almost coreless. Like the great majority of eople he did not know the value of such a variation, but if he had that tree now it might be worth a good sum to him.

By continuous selection of favorable variations, by propagation from these, followed again and again and again by selection and progagation under favorable conditions of culture, mankind has not only improved the quality of all our plant products but he has also extended the season of some of our most delicious fruits and vegetables. We have moreover obtained varieties that may be successfully cultivated over much wider ranges of soil and temperature than the original types. No more interesting or useful object of endeavor could be set up before the minds of young botanists than some useful achievement of this rature. For instance, what a boon it would be for Manitoba if some one we Fife, th The La but the the va develop where by the the sea

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opagation and progas not only extended bles. We vated over nal types. up before nt of this a if some one would develop a variety of Fife wheat, or something as good as the Fife, that would invariably ripen before the early frosts would strike it. The Ladoga Russian wheat matures early enough to escape the frost, but the bread made from it is of a yellowish color which much lessens the value of this grain in the market. It would be a benefit, too, to develop a tomato or a melon or a Lima bean that would mature anywhere in lower Ontario. He will be a public benefactor, also, who can by the production of earlier or later varieties of strawberries extend the season in which we may enjoy this luscious fruit.

The development of some of our wild plants or fruits offers a wide field for usefulness. It is idle to suppose that mankind has exhausted the list of plants that might be made available for some one or another of our varied needs or pleasures. The work is going on in various quarters of the world and young Canadians ought to begin to take a hand in it. American horticulturists are now developing a viburnum, (V. opulus,) which is quite common in this country, too, and which is valuable as an ornamental bush not only on account of its rich deep green foliage, but also because of its exceedingly beautiful red fruit clusters. To people of a practical turn of mind this viburnum will, moreover, be commended by the facts that the fruit yields a table jelly of surpassing excellence, and the bark contains a medicinal principle of great value. Americans have also recently introduced for garden cultivation a dwarf Juneberry which, they declare, produces bountifully a simple fruit which suits many people. There is yet a fine opportunity for some aspiring young Canadian botanist to develop a valuable garden fruit out of our common May apple. Most of us know what a rich tropical flavor the fruit of this plant has. But the fruit is small, and the fruitbearing plants comparatively rare and unproductive. If some one would make a study of the conditions under which this plant thrives best, by judicious selection and cultivation he would probably be able in time to increase the productiveness of the plant, the size of the fruit, and the proportionate quantity of pulp it contains, without sacrificing its present fine flavor, and here would be an achievement worthy of fame.

Many of the matters taken up in this paper are liable to criticism as being all very well in their way, but as really not coming within the range of scientific Botany. Even if this were granted no point would be gained in this connection, for the interests of our young people ought not to be sacrificed to a mere definition of Botany. These things can be taught, and they should be taught in connection with the elementary study of plants, and whether we can then call that study Botany or not is really a matter of no importance.

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MORE WORDS THAT WILL NOT PARSE.

DAVID THOMSON, B.A., ORILLIA.

Before drawing attention to some irregularities of construction in Cæsar, Bell. Gall. Bks. V. VI., it may be well to give some statistics of the regular uses of the Genitive, Dative and Ablative cases in these two books.

In Book V. the Genitive is used 425 times, as follows :----

(1) Ordinary Genitive, <i>i.e.</i> , with nouns	302	times.	
(2) Partitive.	74	66	
(3) Quality or Characteristic	21	66	
(4) With Adjectives	5	66	
(5) With Prepositions (Chiefly "Causa")	23	66	
In Book VI. this case occurs 374 times, as follows :-			
(1) Ordinary	315	66	
(2) Partitive	27	" "	
(3) Quality or Characteristic	10	" "	
(4) With Adjectives	8	"	
(5) With Prepositions	13	"	
(6) Genitive of Price	1	"	
In Book V. the Dative is found 132 times, as follows			
(1) Ordinary (" To " or " For ")	61	**	
(2) With Verbs, e.g., "Parco," and Compounds of "Sum"	52	66	
(3) With Adjectives, e.g., "Similis," "Proximus"	4	66	
(4) Double Dative, e.g., "Præsidio Navibus"	7	"	
(5) Dative Purpose	6	66	
(6) Agent, with Gerund or Gerundive	2	**	
In Book VI. this case occurs 105 times, as follows :			
(1) Ordinary (" To" or " For ")		"	
(2) With Verbs	54	"	
(3) With Adjectives	32	"	
(4) Double Dative	11	"	
(5) Purpose	3	"	
(6) Agent, with Gerund or Gerundive	32	"	
In Book V the Ablating is mat with oral it	_		
In Book V. the Ablative is met with 871 times, as fo	llow	s :	
(1) Ablative Absolute	162	"	
(2) Ablative of Separation	146	**	
(3) Ablative of the Agent	43	**	
(4) Means, Instrument and Cause	138	**	
(5) Manner and Accompaniment	112	**	
(6) Place Where	112	**	

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(7) Time and Attendant Circumstances	53	times.
(8) With Prepositions (Chiefly "De" and "Pro")	61	66
(9) With Verb and Adjectives.	8	
(10) Description	~	44
(11) Measurement or Difference	8	
(12) Specification	11	" "
(12) Specification	16	66
(13) Ablative after a Comparative without "Quam"	1	66
In Book VI. we find this case 625 times, as follows :-		
(1) Ablative Absolute	118	66
(2) Ablative of Separation	102	"
(3) Ablative of the Agent	18	**
(4) Means, Instrument and Cause		44
(5) Manner and Accompaniment	95	
(6) Place Where	70	6.6
(6) Place Where	113	66
() - mo and recondant Oncumstances.	23	66
(8) With Prepositions ("De" and "Pro")	41	66
(9) With Verbs and Adjectives	16	66
(10) Price or Exchange	1	"
(11) Description	n	66
(12) Measurement or Difference		
(13) Specification	3	66
(13) Specification	11	66
(14) Ablative after a Comparative without "Quam"	3	66

In most of the following examples the irregularity consists of the use of the Ablative *without* a Preposition, where the rule calls for the Ablative *with* a Preposition.

We find the Ablative "Numero" without a Preposition, used three times in each of the two books in such expressions as, e.g., "Eodem equitatus totius Galliae convenit *numero* millium quattuor," Book V., chap. 5; or "Quas postea Labienus faciendas curaverat *numero* sexaginta." In these examples it seems best to regard "Numero" as a Definitive or Specifying Ablative, while in such an example as "In desertorum proditorum numero dicuntur," Book VI., chap. 23, we have a variety of the general Ablative of Place Where.

The use of the "Ablative" of Locus without a Preposition is common enough, though no altogether satisfactory explanation of this irregularity, has, so far as I know, been given.

But why do we sometimes find the Preposition used in expressions of exactly the same kind as those in which it is omitted ? For example, why have we "Nocturnaque *in* locis desertis concilia habebant," Book V., chap. 53, or "Hi certo anni tempore in finibus Carnutum quae regio totius Galliae media habetur, considunt *in* loco consecrato" (Book VI., 13), while in another place we find "locisque impeditis ac silvestribus seese occultabat," Book V., chap. 19, or "Opportuno atque occulto loco adventum exspectabant," Book V., chap. 32 ?

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In the first of these two latter expressions, it is possible to take "locisque impeditis" as an Albative of Means or Manner with "Sese occultabat," but this cannot be done in the last example.

It may be also pointed out that although we find the Preposition used in the example taken from the Sixth Book, viz., "Hi — considunt in loco consecrato," yet four chapters farther on we find the plural of this Ablative used without the Preposition "Exstructos tumulos locis consecratis conspicari licet."

The word "Loco" as an Ablative of Place, without a Preposition, occurs eleven times in Book V., and six times in Book VI. With the Preposition it is found only once in Book V. and four times in Book VI. Shall we say that in common expressions like "iniquo loco" the Preposition may be omitted, but in others it must be used? This will not explain "in loco consecrato" and "locis consecratis" mentioned above.

Again, how are we to explain the Ablative in such an expression as "Illi, equitatu atque essedis ad flumen progressi—cœperunt," Book V., chap. 9? If this is to be taken as an example of the Ablative of Accompaniment or Manner is there not something exceptional in the omission of the "Cum"? In Book V., chap. 44, we find "Ne Vorenus quidem sese vallo continet," and in chap. 50 of the same book, "Utrique sese suo loco continent," and in Book VI., chap. 24, "quae gens ad hoc tempus his sedibus sese continet."

It has been suggested that "vallo" and "his sedibus" are to be regarded as Ablatives of Means, but obviously this explanation will not do in the case of *suo loco* in the second example, and the construction is evidently the same in all three cases.

In Book V., chap. 16, "et *pedibus* dispari proelio contenderent," "pedibus" is evidently to be taken as an Ablative of place; but where is the Preposition? To say that "pedibus" and certain other nouns in the Ablative have come to have the force of adverbs is an easy way out of the difficulty, but it is hardly a satisfactory explanation.

In the expression "Eo tum statu res erat," Book VI., chap. 12, we may, perhaps, avoid the difficulty by regarding "eo statu" as an Ablative of Description, although we translate it as an Ablative of Place.

How are we to explain "decreto" in the expression "si qui aut privatus aut populus eorum decreto non stetit," Book VI., 13? Is it possible to regard it as a dative with "stetit," like the dative in such an expression as "Ejus dicto non audientes fuerunt?"

In the expression "Ipse cum tribus legionibus circum Samarobrivam trinis hibernis hiemare constituit," Book V., 53, may we not regard " hibe the or In 1 and t accept positio where and c be reg

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"hibernis" as an Ablative of Manner and thus avoid the difficulty of the omission of the Preposition?

In Book VI. we find "bello" used twice with the Preposition "in" and twice without it:—Chap. 1, "Si quid esset *in bello* detrimenti acceptum"; chap. 15, "omnes *in bello* versantur." Where the Preposition is used we have, it seems, the ordinary Ablative of Place, and where it is omitted, as in chap. 5, "Haec quam ipsum *bello* lacesseret; and chap. 17, "Hinc ea quae *bello* ceperint devovent," "bello" may be regarded as a simple Ablative of Means or Manner.

The irregular Ablatives in Book V. number thirty, and in Book VI. twenty-one. These additions will bring the total number of Ablatives in Book V. up to 901, and in Book VI. to 646. A few irregularities of a somewhat different nature may bring this paper to a close, e.g., Book V., chap. 4, "Nihilo tamen secius principibus Treverorum ad se convocatis hos singillatim Cingetorigi conciliavit," where we should have expected to find "principes Treverorum ad se convocatos Cingetorigi conciliavit."

Again, in Book V., chap. 44, we find "quo percusso et exanimato hunc scutis protegunt," where again "quem percussum et exanimatum scutis protegunt," would seem to be the natural expression.

Lastly, in Book VI., chap. 9, we have "Si amplius obsidum vellet dare pollicentur," where we have a double irregularity—the omission of the subject of the infinitive and the use of the present tense instead of the future after a verb of promising.

I have done little more in this paper than point out some of the "words that will not parse," and I feel that I can offer no explanation more satisfactory than that suggested by the writer of a paper on the same topic last year, namely, that these apparent exceptions are examples of idioms, more common in the spoken than in the literary language of the Romans.

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CÆSAR'S USE OF THE IMPERFECT TENSE.

W. J. FENTON, B.A.

I shall confine the discussion of this subject to directing attention to a few of the less obvious uses of the imperfect tense, as we find these illustrated in Cæsar, restricting myself for the most part to Books V. and VI., as these are the books with which the most of us are presently at any rate best acquainted, and that is an important point when we have not the texts before us.

"The imperfect is the tense we find used when we transfer ourselves in idea to the past and describe what was then present. It is, therefore, employed of states and conditions existing at a particular time, or actions taking place at a given time (still going on and not yet complete when something else was happening) or what was customary or often repeated." Such is Madvig's description of the use of the imperfect.

But I fear that the only idea that most of our pupils get of it is, that it is the tense of complete or customary action as distinct from the perfect the tense of complete action, but the difference between them very many would be unable to give, or the difference between the imperfect and perfect generally in such examples as—" Coercendum.... Dumnorigem statuebat"—where the imperfect does not refer to a customary or repeated action, but to a state of mind existing, and so equivalent to, " was of the opinion that" whereas the perfect "statuit" would indicate a definite conclusion arrived at, and so mean "resolved" or " determined."

A similar difference exists between "Cum primum posset," and "Cum primum potnit."

Here the imperfect refers to the peroid of time, and so is less definite than the perfect which refers to a point of time.

So also in—Cum primum pabuli copia esse inciperet—the imperfect is used with the same force, referring to the season or period of time, and examples of this sort are numerous.

Compare these examples with "multa ad id bellum *incitabant*....ac latius distribuendum *putavit*" the imperfect again connoting the idea of deliberation and the perfect that of definite resolve.

An action on the point of happening in the future may be expressed by the imperfect as : " Cum future ca We se following " Nost summa fugā salu tinued et the enem So Cæ solstice s

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"Cum abesset verebatur motum," etc. This is really a hypothetical future cause.

We see the conative force of the imperfect in such an example as the following :

"Nostrosque intra munitiones ingredi prohibebant" and in "milites summa ni transcedere in hostium naves *coutendebant*....(hostes) fugā salutem petere *coutenderunt*." The imperfect represents their continued efforts and the perfect much more vividly describes the flight of the enemy by representing it as a definite act.

So Cæsar in speaking of what he heard in Britain about the winter solstice said :—" Nos nihil de eo percontationibus *reperiebamus*," which implies repeated effort during his stay.

Peculiarities such as the following are particularly noticeable.

"Ripa autem erat acutis sendibus præfixis munita aquā difixae sudes flumine tegebantur."

In this case the imperfect represents the condition which is the result of the performance of similar acts while the pluperfect preceding refers to the definite act. Again "Illi repentina re perturbati etsi ab hoste dicebantur," the imperfect is used here though he is apparently speaking of a definite act of warning on the part of Ambiorix. The idea of the imperfect seems to be that it describes a condition existing as long as the matter was being discussed.

"Quantasvis copias etiam Germanorum posse sustineri....docebant." Here the imperfect probably because the opinion was given expression from different sources rather than from time to time.

"Tum fumi incendiorum *incendebantur*." The imperfect much more vividly represents the appearance of the approaching fires than the perfect. Indeed the perfect would scarcely be allowable.

The construction of jam with the imperfect the equivalent of the English pluperfect is too common to need noticing, it seems to describe an action continuing from some previous time up to and in to the past time spoken of.

When we compare "Habebat persuasum sibi" with "persuaserunt," we see the imperfect calling special attention to the continuance of the result of an action already past pointing out an accomplished condition rather than marking a specific act as the perfect would do. We find similar uses of habeo in "habent instituta," and "habent sanctum."

In the example "ut quaeque pars eastrorum....premi videbatur eo occurrere," the imperfect is unusual.

"Ut" here is equal to whenever, and in such clauses the rule is that when the thing is spoken of as repeatedly or customarily done, and 32

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the subordinate clause expressing "time," "condition" or "place," if the action of the subordinate clause is antecedent to that of the principal verb, the perfect is used with the primary sequence and the pluperfect with the secondary compare "Oppidum antem Britanni vocant cum silvas....munierunt," and "cum cohors excesserat re."

We also find the subjunctive used here in Livy and later writers, but Cæsar and Cicero usually use the ind. The use of the imperfect here then is not in accordance with the rule, but it seems to emphasize the idea of the successive of places so affected.

In chap. XII., Book VI., we have "intelligebatur" used impersonally in the sense of it was perceived, which meaning this verb has commonly only in the perfect and pluperfect tenses, it's meaning in the perfect and imperfect being "I know," rather than "I perceive," the passage is "quos quod apud cæsarem gratia intelliegebatur."

Another doubtful form is "ejusmodi sunt tempestates consecutae ut opus necessario intermitterentur."

There is little difference between the perfect and imperfect in consecutive clauses. Here it has been suggested that the imperfect expresses the idea of constant interruptions rather than a complete cessation of work. And again we find in one instance at least the imperfect used in indicating a point of time and an action which has taken place, "nec prius sunt visi objectis ab ea parte silvis quam castras appropmquarent." But "non aut (prius) quam" always takes perfect ind.

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BROADER CHARACTERISTICS OF CÆSAR'S STYLE.

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THE BROADER CHARACTERISTICS OF CÆSAR'S STYLE.

E. W. HAGARTY, B.A., TORONTO.

At this late day what can anyone hope to advance as original or new regarding the style of Cæsar so far as its broader characteristics are concerned? Probably no other writer of ancient or modern times is so widely read or has been so widely read for so many centuries. The most that a writer of such a paper as this can hope to do is to collate the opinions of abler critics, to compare and sift, to illustrate, it may be, by quotation or analysis of typical passages, or perhaps succeed in adding a tinge of originality by some slight departure from the beaten track of observation. Ambitious, indeed, were I, and time would not permit should I attempt to do all of this exhaustively. Like Ulysses, I fear I should not have an Alcinous to promise me a safe return home on the morrow.

What, then, shall I attempt? Briefly, to condense, as far as possible, what appear to be the prevailing ideas regarding Cæsar's style, to test these in the light of my own impressions, and allow my hearers to draw their own conclusions.

The first thing that strikes one in perusing the ordinary criticisms of Cæsar's style, is the decided tendency to wander away from the writings to the man. The question naturally suggests itself, "Why is this ?" "What underlying principle, consciously or unconsciously acted upon, leads to this apparent incoherency on the part of learned critics?" The answer must be that probably in no other writer is the saying verified more fully, "The style is the man." To put it another way, in the case of no other writer is so much known about the man as having such a direct bearing upon his writings; or, perhaps still better, no other equally great man has written with equally marked elegance regarding those very actions by which he established to the world his own greatness. Is it not natural then that the man and all we know of him should be inseparably intertwined with our studies of his style? Quintilian, in estimating his oratory (for Q. does not even mention Cæsar in his summary of history writers) says that he "spoke as he fought "-" eodem animo dixisse quo bellavit "-and draws the logical conclusion that had he had as much time to devote to the forum as to the battlefield, he would have been a rival of Cicero in the forensic art.

CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION.

This then strikes the key-note of our enquiries regarding Cæsar's style. Let us follow it out. What do we know from history, what from himself, regarding the man? Consensus of opinion represents him as refined, well-balanced, highly intellectual, fair to his personal foes, the idol of his subordinates and soldiers, exceedingly ambitious, but gifted with the power of concealing his ambition beneath an elegant mantle of patriotic purpose. We know him to have been swift as an eagle to act when occasion demanded, but withal never impulsive, always calm, cautious, far-seeing, self-contained. He boasted of his own clemency towards the Gauls, a boast which Simcox thinks not an empty one, for as he says, "most of his harshness was justified on the ground of expediency, and regulated according to convenience." It has been said of him that he was the one character of his age that we can both like and esteem. Even Cato, his bitter enemy, said that he was "the only man who came sober to the overthrow of the state." That the state in its then condition deserved to be overthrown, most of us now admit, although Cato may be excused for not seeing it at the time.

Further it is known that he was both by early training and by natural taste a "literary connoisseur," well versed in the literature of Greece and his native country. On the whole then he appears in his own person to have been the ideal of a gentleman, a soldier and a scholar; moreover, a trained politician and man of the world, whose every instinct was opposed to hollow shams of government, and whose sympathies were with the masses. He was then a many-sided man.

So much for the sum total of our impressions regarding the man. How far does this picture agree with what ought to be a true reflection in his writings?

He was refined, yet manly. Are his writings elegant with that true refinement known as simplicity—absence of all straining after effect, yet smooth, restful, and pleasing? Elegant simplicity is certainly conceded as a characteristic of his style. His purpose at the outset was not to produce a work of art, but to frame a sort of diary, a series of campaign notes, which possibly might be used afterwards as materials for an avowed history. Yet he so stamped his own grace of mind upon their easy finish that none afterwards dared to improve upon them. Simcox says the commentaries were "written year by year with ease and rapidity," yet "few parts of ancient history are so well told." Cicero, "De Oratore," says :—

"Commentarios scripsit valde quidem probandos; nudi sunt, recti, et venusti omni ornatu orationis tanquam veste detracta."

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portion of his writings, the bare military narrative. One striking exception is the "splendid episode," of the two centurions, Pulio and Vorenus, Book V., chap. 44. The style of this is said to be "more archaic" than the rest, "indicating Cæsar's taste for the finer points of the early literature." Simcox, in commenting on the "Bellum Civile," a production of slightly more advanced years, calls attention to the absence of archaicisms in the more elegant passages. An examination of the archaicisms in the passage referred to, is omitted here, but might prove an interesting study at one's leisure.

He was fair, mild, yet firm in discipline, kindly to the faults of subordinates, moderate in dealing with the offences of those who opposed him. Do these characteristics find a counterpart in his writings? With what elegant delicacy he writes in the year fifty-three (when jealousy must have been already springing up between himself and Pompey), of Pompey's readiness to "concede to the public weal and to friendship," the assistance of soldiers required for the purpose of over-awing the Gauls. Notice the terseness, the smooth concealment of animosity, if animosity there was, the refined sparingness of words in dealing with a delicate subject, yet the gentle reminder that the favor was granted, not so much to friendship as to the interest of the state. He puts *reipublicae* before *amicitiae*, observe. I think the lion's claw may be seen peeping out from the velvet sheath of the elegancy of style.

Again, in his simple yet animated story of Sabinus and Cotta, how he makes us feel the arrogant stupidity of Sabinus, but nowhere uses language in producing that effect at all approaching the violence of the language we feel inclined ourselves to use in describing the effect. He tells the simple facts, scarcely colored by his own opinions; but the facts thus told are more damaging to the ignorant coward Sabinus, and more creditable to the hero Cotta, than if he had dressed them up in rhetoric expressive of strong condemnation on the one hand or extravagant admiration on the other. He seems loth to expose Sabinus, but as justice to himself and to his massacred soldiers demands it, he does it as a matter of duty, with no undue or undignified severity, apparently more in sorrow than in anger.

Then, again, with what evident zest he turns to portray the heroism and sagacity of Cicero and the magnificent defence offered by his legionaries under a leader such as they deserved.

Book V. alone therefore affords ample proof in the way of style, that Cicero was magnaminous and fair—mild in censure and enthusiastic though not extravagant in praise. Under circumstances that might justify rhetoric, he controls his pen as he did his impulses in the heat of battle. (See also Dumnorix.)

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CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION.

Lastly, Cæsar was a many-sided man. Certainly, if there is one characteristic of his style that strikes us more than another, it is its versatility. He is versatile in his themes; he is versatile in his manner of treating them. What an endless variety of topics we find in the commentaries : Geography, racial characteristics, battles and military movements, judicial enquiries, interviews and speeches, engineering operations, navigation and ship-building, and even natural history. There is one noticeable exception however. Rarely, and then only briefly, does he undertake direct character description. Our knowledge of the men he deals with is largely of a dramatic nature, and even in the case of Ariovistus, where he does give a deliberate character portrait, he works it in dramatically, as not vouched for by himself, but given as the opinion of Divitiacus the Aeduan.

Varied as are his themes, varied also are his modes of composition. We find the simplest style of description in his explanations of Geography. In his battle pictures (e.g., battle with the Nervii, Book II.), as a rule we have the involved periodic sentence, the purpose of which is to crowd into one statement a number of subordinate details centring around the main impression. This massing of minor details under a leading thought, is rather perplexing to the novice at translation, it must be admitted, but remembering that Cæsar wrote for the Roman mind, we cannot but concede that the period is most in accord with the hurly-burly of battle, where marchings and counter-marchings, the clash and exchange of weapons, the sudden alarm, the hurried rush, are all one great jumble, remembered afterwards only indistinctly as parts of the great picture of victory or defeat. Let us not carp then at the period. It is in the nature of Yet, again, take the simple narrative of chapter 38, Book V. (read). What could be easier? I do not mean easier to translate, but easier in that off-hand throwing together of short sentences indulged in where a simple but animated story has to be told.

A military bridge across the Rhine is a complicated piece of mechanism. How admirably Cæsar succeeds in reproducing the spirit of his work, let the agonized matriculant of 1894 testify. Cæsar's style then may be said to be varied both in matter and in form, and in this respect it corresponds with the many-sided character of the man.

Much more might be said did time permit. The dramatic features of the narrative might be dwelt upon. How Cæsar interweaves into his diary of dry facts, the actions and personality of those around him and those opposed to him. What living pictures he leaves us of Dumnorix, of Ariovistus, of Sabinus and Cotta, of Cicero, and of Ambion course (is a sta actor, b star in What

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around ves us of and of Ambionix, all apparently without effort at word-painting. Of course the one great dramatic personage of it all, is Cæsar. The book is a standing monument of his own personality. He is the leading actor, but how gracefully he performs his part of both manager and star in the drama, only those who read between the lines can realize.

What then is the sum and substance of our observations as to Cæsar's style ?

It is plain and unadorned, as Cæsar was a plain man of action.

It is elegant in its simplicity, as Cæsar was refined in his tastes.

It is moderate in dealing with themes calculated to betray strong personal feeling of resentment or partisanship, even as Cæsar was a magn nimous and outwardly fair-minded man.

It is varied in accord with the man's versatile temperament and abilities.

In fact it exhibits all that is expressed in the word "sober" (Cato's word), as might be expected from the man who was self-contained, strong-willed, steady in aim and gifted with the ability to bring into play as occasion required all the powers placed by nature at the disposal of an unusually powerful mind.

NOTE.—The Secretary of the Classical Association wishes to state, and to express his regret, that the paper read by Professor Dale, on "The Historical and Literary Significance of Cæsar's Commentaries," and that by Mr. H. R. H. Kenner, on "Cæsar as a General," cannot be printed owing to a misunderstanding for which he is himself responsible, and by which the manuscripts of both papers were destroyed in transmission from the printer.

MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL ASSOCIATION.

SIR WILLIAM ROWAN HAMILTON, THE INVENTOR OF QUATERNIONS.

Alfred Baker, M.A., Toronto.

As students of Mathematics we are too much inclined to neglect two lines of reading by which much additional interest and vitality may be imparted to the study of the science. I refer to the history of Mathematics, and to the biographies of distinguished mathematicians. This neglect is shared by most English-speaking students. Allman, in his work on Greek Geometry (published in 1889) says, "It is pleasing to see that the number of students of the history of Mathematics is ever increasing; and that the centres in which the subject is cultivated are becoming more numerous; it is particularly gratifying to observe that the subject has at last attracted attention in England." It is not too much to say that though I may understand the propositions of Euclid perfectly, I do not realize or appreciate the full significance of the subject until I have made myself acquainted to some extent with the condition of Mathematics amongst the Greeks before and after the time of Euclid.

Algebra acquires an additional vividness if I know that it passed through what have been called the rhetorical and syncopated stages before it reached the present symbolic stage, and if I know in addition something of the history of these changes, and to what extent certain nations participated in them.

Even Arithmetic, much despised Arithmetic, has for me a certain stateliness and dignity when I remember that it was cradled in the valley of the Nile, that, sitting in its swaddling clothes, it directed the raising of the pyramids and the fashioning of the vast temples at Karnac; and recall its not too promising boyhood in Greece. I say these recollections give it a certain stateliness and dignity, which even its relegation to Matriculation Examination, Part I. cannot entirely remove.

In more advanced branches of Mathematics, History and Biography receive additional interest and value. Indeed in some text-books of high authority the subject treated of has been dealt with in the historical order of its development. I have in mind, however, this afternoo of the p created to speak of Quat as the have of detailed

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nd Biography text-books of t with in the however, this afternoon more especially the craving we all feel to know something of the personal character and surroundings of the great men who have created the subjects to which we happen to be devoted; and propose to speak of Sir William Rowan Hamilton, the distinguished inventor of Quaternions, who has been by more than one authority referred to as the greatest mathematician since Laplace. The information we have of his life is very abundant indeed, and that I may be more detailed I shall confine myself to his boyhood.

Ball, in his "History of Mathematics," says that Hamilton was born of Scotch parents in Dublin on August 4th, 1805. The claim that Hamilton was of Scotch parentage is absolutely incorrect. His father, grandfather, and great-grandfather were Irish. It is quite certain also from his frequent references to the subject that Hamilton regarded himself as Irish, and not as a Scotchman born in Ireland.

When a child of nearly three years he was entrusted to the care of an uncle, a clergyman and a graduate of Dublin University. You all remember that Newton as a boy was, if not dull, at least lazy and unpromising. Hamilton was a youthful prodigy. At three years he could read well. At three and a-half he could read writing, having apparently picked the knowledge up without being taught. At four, he is described as creating great amusement in a company of gentlemen by reading with the book turned upside down, if such be an accomplishment. At four years and five months, he is spoken of as reading Latin, Greek and Hebrew.

The following is an extract from a letter written by his aunt to his mother when Hamilton was five years old: "Willie, despairing of success in teaching Rose Hebrew, is now trying to instruct her in the different figures of speech. You would have been amused had you heard him the other day giving her examples of a simile. He compared himself to a tree bringing forth good fruit, and assured her that simile was the Latin for like; 'and now, Rose, I will give you another example, suppose I compare you to a tree bringing forth bad fruit; don't you see the likeness there? Well, that's a simile.'" You see there was humor in his precocity.

The following extract from a letter is amusing, Hamilton being at the time referred to five years old: "Before tea, Willie repeated Dryden's and Collins' odes inimitably, read both English and Greek, and repeated Hebrew. After tea, Mr. Elliot got a Greek Homer, and desired Mr. Montgomery to examine Willie. When he opened the book, he said, 'Oh ! this book has contractions, Mr. Elliot; of course the child cannot read it.' 'Try him,' said his uncle. To his amaze-

ment, Willie went on with the greatest ease. Mr. Montgomery dropped the book and paced the room; but every now and then he would come and stare at Willie, and afterwards said that he was seized with a degree of awe that made him almost afraid to look at the child. What made the matter the more amazing to Montgomery was that he had seen the boy the whole evening acting in the most childish and playful manner. Had he been a grave, quiet child, he would not have been so surprised."

With all his surprising knowledge, he was thoroughly childish. Thus, in a letter to his mother, his aunt says: "I wish you could see the children dancing of an evening. It is hard to say whether their feet or their tongues move fastest. Grace is distressed that Willie will not learn the Highland fling. He assures her that the 'tiger and lion fling,' an invention of his own of course, which he dances, is much finer."

Before he was eight his uncle declared that he was master of Latin, Greek and Hebrew, and that he found so little difficulty in learning French and Italian that he wished to read Homer in French. He carried his Homer about with him, declaiming from it whatever specially pleased him. He amazed a company one day at the same period by delivering an extemporaneous oration in Latin on the subject "Nature and Art." When he is nine years and nine months of age, his father makes the following statement respecting his son in a letter to a friend: "William's thirst for the oriental languages is unabated. The Hebrew, Persian and Arabic are about to be confirmed by an intimate acquaintance with Sanscrit. Chaldee and Syriac he is grounded in, as also in Hindoostanee, Malay, Mahratta, Bengali, and others. He is about to commence Chinese, but the difficulties of procuring books is very great."

In the earliest letter of Hamilton's that has come down to us, written when he was ten years and four months old, he says of himself: "I have been for some time reading Lucien and Terence, the Hebrew Psalter on Sundays, and on Saturdays some Sanscrit, Arabic and Persian. I read at leisure hours Goldsmith's Animated Nature, and any new history or poetry that falls in my way. I like Walter Scott very much. In Arithmetic I have got as far as Practice, and I have done half the first book of Euclid with uncle." The amazing thing is that all this knowledge seems to have been acquired, not without diligence it is true, but with perfect ease, almost as an amusement, and utilized when occasion arose judiciously and with tact.

I now come to a period of Hamilton's life equally interesting with

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SIR WILLIAM ROWAN HAMILTON.

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his childhood—his schooldays, spent principally at Trim, with, of course, many excursions up to Dublin.

At the age of eleven we find him compiling a Syriac Grammar, a little manuscript book of thirty pages, and reading at leisure Blackstone's Commentaries! A little later he prepares what he rather pompously styles "A Compendious Treatise of Algebra by William Hamilton." It deals with the subject as far as quadratic equations. The opening words "Algebra is defined Universal Arithmetic, because we deduce from it universal operations," reveal a philosophic grasp with a boy's crudeness of expression. Along with the Algebra is a "Grammar of the Sanscrit Language by W. Hamilton"—in manuscript of course.

In 1819, at the suggestion of his father; he wrote a letter in Persian to the Persian Ambassador who chanced to be visiting in Dublin. The interesting point here is that Hamilton is not content that the letter be in Persian, but he imitates the oriental exuberance of speech. Here is a translation of a part of the letter,—"As the heart of the worshipper is turned towards the altar of his sacred vision, and as the sunflower to the rays of the sun, so to thy bright radiance turns the yet unblossomed rose bud of my mind, desiring warmer climates, whose fragrance and glorious splendour appear to warm the orbit about thee, star of the state, of lustrous brilliancy."

There is a record made at this time of his work during four months. It includes a vast amount of reading in Classics, Orientals, History, etc.; and in Science the following:—Algebra (Arithmetical and Geometrical Progressions), Euclid (part of early books), Theory of Eclipses. You see, therefore, that Science was not at all keeping pace with his other accomplishments. In his Journal of September 4th, 1820 (age fifteen), is the entry "read Newton's life," and a little more than a month later "began Newton's Principia," and on the next day is the entry "vaulted over two tables and three forms easily," showing, as his biographer says, how thoroughly he is still the boy. His practical skill is shown by his making a quadrant, utilizing a Church steeple to make a sun dial, and especially by his invention of a simple and ingenious method of telegraphy, by which, using telescopes, he and a companion conversed when separated a mile from each other. The following diagram explains his method :—

	1	2	3	4	5
1	A	В	C	D	F
2	G	E	H	J	K
3	L	M	I	.N°	P
1	Q	Ŕ	8	0	T
5	V	X	Y	Z	\overline{U}

Then the arms held straight upwards in a line with the body indicated 1; held at an angle of 45° to the line of the body, and upwards they indicated 2; held at right angles to the line of the body they indicated 3; held at an angle of 45° to the line of the body and downwards, they indicated 4; and held straight downwards they indicated 5. Accordingly the numbers 4, 3, indicated thus in succession, gave the letter N; 3, 2, indicated in succession, gave H, etc. I suggest, as an improvement, that the right arm be employed to indicate the horizontal numbers, and the left arm to indicate the vertical numbers; so that one position of the arms may give each time a letter.

The following extract from a letter to his cousin Hannah Hutton, written in 1821 (age 16), illustrates the early philosophic bias of his mind,--"I have been principally employed in reading Science. In studying conic sections and other parts of Geometry, I have often been struck with the occurrence of what may be called demonstrated mysteries. Since, though they are proved by rigidly mathematical proof, it is difficult, if not impossible, to conceive how they can be true. For instance, it is proved that the most minute line can be divided into an infinite number of parts, and that there can be assigned two lines, the hyperbola and its asymptote, which shall approach without ever meeting, although the distance between them shall diminish within any assignable limits. If, therefore, within the very domain of that Science which is most within the grasp of human reason, which rests upon the firm pillars of demonstration, and is totally removed from doubt or dispute, there be truths which we cannot comprehend, why should we suppose that we can understand everything connected with the nature and attributes of an infinite being."

During all this period he was greatly interested in what was to occupy so much of his future life—Astronomy.

There is in existence an essay of his, dated March 13th, 1822, when he was therefore sixteen years old, "On the value of $\frac{9}{6}$, with preliminary remark think ternio dividin ber is made to but su the ser same p By add finding sorts of "Bu

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remarks on Division." I cannot refrain from quoting from it, as I think it contains adumbrations of his future great invention, Quaternions: "Division, according to the most obvious definition, is the dividing of a quantity into a given number of parts, whence that number is called the divisor. This kind of Division was probably the first made use of, but is very limited in extent, not admitting any divisors but such as are real positive integer numbers, in short such as are of the series 1, 2, 3, 4, etc. The result of this operation always bore the same proportion to the original number that unity did to the divisor. By adopting this property as a definition, namely, that Division is the finding of a fourth proportional to divisor, unity and dividend, all sorts of numerical divisors were admitted.

"But there is another view of the subject, naturally suggested by the term quotient; namely, that Division is the finding how often one quantity is contained in another. This is the definition at present generally adopted. The distinction between it and the former is, that in this the divisor must be homogeneous to the dividend; in the former it must be a mere number. Perhaps the best definition of Division would be "the finding that quantity which multiplied by the divisor will produce the dividend (observe how closely this approaches the Quaternion notion of multiplication).

"Before I quit this subject I may be allowed to remark that all the branches of Arithmetic are applied in a much more extensive manner than was contemplated by the inventors of them. (This is really the genesis of Quaternions By the introduction of negative and fractional quantities operations that diminish are included under Addition and Multiplication, and others that increase under Subtraction and Division. As the boundaries of Science were extended new operations were designated by old names." (Thus in Quaternions a succession of transferences, even when not in same direction, is still designated as Addition : and the operation of converting one vector into another, even when mere stretching will not accomplish it, is still designated as Multiplication.)

In a short paper written at the same time Hamilton uses Astronomy to decide a moot point in the chronology of the Æneid (Book III., lines 506-517). The point is the determination of the season of the year from observation of a constellation, the hour and place of observation being known. The precession of the equinoxes is involved in the problem. He is studying the Differential Calculus in Garnier's Treatise, and also the Mécanique Céleste of Laplace. He distinguishes himself very much by detecting a flaw in the reasoning by which Laplace

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demonstrates the parallelogram of forces. And as if all this were not enough, this "wondrous boy" of sixteen summers is writing poetry of no m an kind, and has planned a most ambitious poem on "The Literature of Rome." The following is a very brief analysis of this proposed composition:

Part I. The poem opens with a sketch of the early history of Rome. Probable anticipations of Romulus with respect to the glories of his city, and the conquest of Greece. The earliest poetry of Rome, Syracuse—conquest of the Dorian colony first excited a taste for the science, arts and poetry of Greece. Improvement in Roman Theatre, Attic models, early dramatists of Rome. Style of ancient poets (Ennius, etc.) of Rome; poverty of character in Roman comedy contrasted with the riches of Shakespeare.

Part II. is equally ambitious, and brings the literature of Rome down to the time of Virgil.

I make one quotation from the composition, which was never finished. The selection is a picture of a Roman soldier gazing on the Zeus of Phidias :---

> " Methinks I see in half subdued amaze The rugged soldier on the marble gaze Where some Athenian sculptor boldly strove To mould the unseen majesty of Jove. Th' ambrosial locks down his high forehead curled, The awful nod with which he bows the world. And can we marvel if the Roman heart Conferred the influence strange of Grecian art, At once by mingled feelings tranced and awed, Admired the artist and adored the God.

But hark ! what fingers slowly strike the strings ? It is the mournful captive sweetly sings : From Pella's bard he sings in plaintive tone Of man's vicissitudes, of states o'erthrown ; And how the victor's laurels brightest shine Bathed in thy tears, O mercy, nymph divine ! The softened conqueror thinks upon his home, And sheaths again th' uplifted sword of Rome.

But his energies and amazing cleverness were not all absorbed in this; for to the same time belongs the following letter to his sister Eliza: "I called on Charles Boynton, the fellow, last week. He was trying to solve a problem in Analytical Geometry, which he showed me, and I had the pleasure of solving it before him; for two days after, when I brought the solution, I found that he had not succeeded. Charles Boynton is eminent as a mathematician in College. He will be my tutor." The problem referred to is as follows: There are three circle an ar circle and t on the I sha readin

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absorbed in to his sister ek. He was e showed me, o days after, t succeeded. ge. He will ere are three circles with centres in a straight line; find two other straight lines and an area, so that the rectangle under the tangents from a point on one circle to the other two may be a mean proportional between the area and the sum of the squares on the perpendiculars from the same point on the two lines. A month later in a letter to his aunt he says: "I fear I shall never be as fond of Classics as of the Mathematics I am now reading."

There still exists an essay written in his seventeenth year, "On Equations representing Systems of Right Lines in a Given Plane," which was the germ of his subsequent investigations on Systems of Rays.

I am surprised that he had made such advances in Mathematics without having read more than one or two books of Euclid. He says in a letter of date 1822, "This had the effect of making me sensible how deficient I was in Euclid, and, "I have since read through the six books of Euclid in the following manner: When I am walking I glance at the title of a proposition and then work it out, having resolved not to assist myself by text or figure until I conquer the difficulty by my own resources. The hardest question I met was Euclid IV., 10. I found by Analytic Geometry that the base must be the greater segment of either side cut in extreme and mean ratio, and then formed a demonstration depending only on the Second Book of Euclid."

To this date belong some papers on Osculating Circles, Osculating Parabolas, and "On Contacts between Algebraic Curves and Surfaces." In a letter to his cousin Arthur, he says: "By an investigation founded on the successive propogation of light, I ascertained that there were places (on the earth) at which the emersion of Jupiter's first Satellite and the middle of the eclipse of ours would have appeared to synchronize (he had noted that to the observer on the earth they were nearly synchronous), and also that these places are all contained in an hyperboloid of revolution, Jupiter being one focus, the earth the other, and the axis being equal to the space that light traverses in the difference of the times of the phenomena,"—a very remarkable problem for a mere youth to work out.

I could quote here some verses of his "On the Scenery and Associations of Trim," but avoid doing so for want of time, not because they are worthless. On May 12th, 1823, he says: "Of late I have been reading sojmuch Greek that I think I could really speak it better than Latin," and in the same month: "The time I have given to Science has been very small indeed, for I fear becoming infatuated with it."

On the 7th July, 1823, he passed the Entrance Examination at Dublin,

standing first amongst one hundred candidates. Just after his Matriculation Examination he wrote a prose composition entitled, "Waking Dream, or Fragment of a Dialogue between Pappus and Euclid in the Meads of Asphodel." The style is so singularly elegant that I cannot refrain from giving a short quotation. As I read ask yourselves if it be inferior to the imaginary conversations of Walter Savage Landor:—

Pappus. And now that we have discussed these more recent improvements in that science of which you are held the inventor, permit me to enquire how you were enabled to deduce consequences so remote from principles so simple: inform me what it was that first suggested to your mind the consideration of those Theorems which have come down under your name. For so successful have you been in disguising the analysis which you pursued, that to this day even the learned are doubtful whether your discoveries were made by a gradual process, like that which conducts to truths the minds of other men: or whether they were imparted as an immediate gift from Him who constructed for the bee its wondrous habitation—of whom it has been justly said, 'O $\theta \epsilon \delta s$ $\gamma \epsilon \omega \mu \epsilon \tau \rho \epsilon i$ '. (Pappus is said to have been the first to study the geometry of the beehive.)

Euclid. It was not unintentionally that I adopted, as the medium of communicating to my contemporaries those results at which I arrived, a synthesis which presented them under a form the best adapted to excite astonishment, and to disguise the process of discovery. To exoterics the science appeared more interesting as it was more mysterious: and for myself—if the world had known all the fortuitous circumstances to which I owed the perception of so many theorems, would they have reverenced as they did the mathematician of Alexandria?

The inventor of a curious piece of mechanism does not expose his artifice to the vulgar eye; nor does an architect when he has erected a magnificent edifice, leave the scaffolding behind. Or, think you, that the nest of the Phœnix, with its odorous flame, would be regarded with the same veneration, were its place accessible to human foot? Yet now, since no motive to disguise remains, I am willing, if such be your desire, to reveal the entire process of discovery.

Pappus. There is nothing which I have more often or more ardently desired. And in the first place, I wish to know why you began with those Definitions, Postulates, and Axioms, which are prefixed to your elements: by what intuition you selected a priori all that could be necessary or useful and nothing besides.

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SIR WILLIAM ROWAN HAMILTON.

er his Matrid, "Waking Euclid in the hat I cannot urselves if it e Landor :--e recent imentor, permit es so remote st suggested have come n disguising learned are process, like hether they cted for the id, 'O beds study the

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you have expressed it, a priori, that form in which they now appear. The Definitions arose, some out of the necessity of making my own ideas precise, and of communicating them to others; some I introduced that I might from the statement of a simple property deduce by geometrical reasoning properties less obvious and more remote; some were suggested by analogy, and others invented afterwards, to present under a more systematic form the introduction to the science. In a word, no part of the *elements* has received more alterations as I proceeded than the collection of Definitions with which they commence.

The Postulates were at one time more numerous than they are now. It was not at once that I perceived the smallest number of data that were sufficient to resolve all geometrical problems, and effect all geometrical constructions. But with respect both to them and to the Axioms, I may observe, that they were not formed, as you seemed to suppose, a priori, but as occasion offered."

And so through many pages Euclid and Pappus continue their dignified, instructive, and charming conversation.

The Dargle is a small river not far from Dublin, singularly attractive, I believe, at parts. The following graceful lines commence one of Hamilton's poems "To the Dargle River":

> 'Twas in this lone, this loved retreat, The soul of Beauty fixed her seat. Descending from her native sphere She closed her wings and rested here ; And, wooed and won by the young earth, She chose this valley to give birth To those who haunt this fairy ground, Hovering invisibly around. Their dance is on the waving hills, Their song the murmur of the rills ; Hark how their magic melody Thus breaks upon my reverie !

To the spring immediately succeeding his matriculation belongs an "Elegy on a Schoolfellow," who had died in the East. You will see from a stanza or two which I quote that it is not wanting in tenderness or beauty of expression :—

And art thou then indeed no more, and must Thou never to thy native land return, Save in the mockery of the lifeless bust, Or in the sad and monumental urn ; Though in that bosom once were wont to burn All kindly feelings which make country dear, Though wistfully and oft thy gaze did turn Over the sea to friends and kindred here, While started at the thought th' involuntary tear. 265

Ah, what availed to thee the anxious hours Of study, stealing on the silent night; Ah, what availed to thee the brightest flowers That in the garden of the East unite To breathe a soft, voluptuous delight: Where Hafiz pours his sweetly plaintive lay, Or proud Ferdusi sings of heroes' might In nobler strain, and Iraun's conquering day Seizes the kindling soul and hurries it away.

Oh hadst thou never left the happy home That saw us once in earliest boyhood here, When 'twas our joy together linked to roam Through all the changes of the circling year; Whether thou badst me mark the Spring appear In its fresh beauty; or didst teach mine arm To part like thine the summer water clear; While thou were by my side I feared no harm, And sports that please not now, could exquisitely charm.

Thou ledd'st me to Autumnal trees afar, Of various fruitage ; and when Winter frowned Have we not oft engaged in mimic war, Snatching our snowy armour from the ground ; And while the artificial shower around Fell fast and frequent, laughed we not to see The dazzling bright artillery rebound, Shattered with ineffectual force, while we Forgot the passing hours in fulness of our glee.

Those fields, those trees, are vocal of thy name, 'Tis whispered by those waters as they glide; And when the Spring returns, altho' the same Beauty which then she had be now denied, Still in her murmuring gales thy name seems sighed, Still seems the melancholy sound to mourn Our once indissoluble links untied, Thee from these childhood scenes forever torn, And o'er th' unbounded waste of raging waters borne.

The boyhood of Hamilton may be considered to close with his Matriculation Examination, and he entered upon his College career. His subsequent life, as you all well know, fully realized the most flattering anticipations which his friends had formed of him in boyhood. I have not time, however, to sketch his subsequent achievements, and content myself with repeating some anecdotes, and noting certain points, which may afford you a glimpse of the character of the man, or be otherwise of interest in connection with his work.

The following anecdote illustrates Hamilton's readiness in making clear a somewhat abstruse point. In a letter to a friend he says : "One mornin ago, wi Willian times t assert I and par and at a turnin operatin

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morning that I had the honor to breakfast at Parsonstown, some years ago, with Lord and Lady Rosse, Lord Rosse said to his lady, 'Sir William Hamilton wants to persuade us that three times four and four times three are not the same.' 'No, Lady Rosse,' said I, 'What I do assert I can prove to you in a moment.' So taking out my penknife and partly opening it, so that the handle and blade were horizontal and at right angles, I showed them that for the handle to operate with a turning motion on the blade was a different thing from the blade operating on the handle, *i.e.*, ij = -ji."

To those of you who have studied Quaternions and have found difficulties therein, the following will be interesting, and possibly encouraging. It is a letter from Sir J. F. W. Herschel to Hamilton :---

November 18th, 1859.

My Dear Sir William Hamilton,-

Your deduction from Quaternions of Fresnel's wave is one of those things which I have just knowledge enough to admire without enough to understand. But it set me again to reading upon Lating and

to understand. But it set me again to reading your Lectures on Quaternions, and I got through the three first chapters of it with a much clearer perception of meaning than when I attacked it some three or four years back, but I was again obliged to give it up in despair. Now I pray you to listen to this cry of distress. I feel certain that if you pleased you could put the whole matter in as clear a light as would make the calculus accessible as an instrument to readers even of less "penetrating power" than myself, who, having once mastered the algorithm and the conventions so as to work with it, would then be better prepared to go along with you in your metaphysical explanations.

Do pray think of this. At the risk of offending, I will venture to say you will not have done yourself justice if you do not give the world some clue that a lower class of thinkers can unravel than those who alone can hope to master that book.

The simplest way would be to give forth a number of *examples* of the treatment of problems and theorems by it. I mean not examples which shall be of themselves general theorems or important discoveries, but good honest ordinary problems or theorems, such as can be readily worked by common Algebra and Trigonometry, but gradually increasing in difficulty; and these might be prefaced by a clear statement of the Rules of the Calculus as Rules.

Such a book would have an immense influence. Hundreds would learn to use the calculus as a means of investigation, and its theory would, by degrees, be popularized. Pray excuse this from

Yours, very sincerely, etc.

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Herschel's request for "a clear statement of the Rules of the Calculus as Rules," is very amusing; so is his desire for a set of "good honest ordinary problems." His great soul was in fact crying out for such a book as "Kelland and Tait," which has so long been used by students in the University of Toronto. Tait felt the same need, though not with such almost comically distressing acuteness, for in his first edition to his work, published in 1867, he says: "I had worked out nearly all the examples of Analytical Geometry in Todhunter's Collection." Hamilton's "Elements" was written in part with a view of meeting this want. The earliest sheets of the "Elements" were submitted to Herschel, and he approved of them. A second lot of sheets were sent to him, and drew from him the criticism that by the introduction of some difficult applications of the Calculus the attention of commencing students was too soon diverted from its principles. He even objected to a passage respecting transversals, an objection, however, which he withdrew, very properly, I think. All this tells us that the difficulty of writing a good text-book on a new subject is very great indeed. The good text-book is the result of a process of evolution ; sometimes unhappily a process of devolution sets in.

There are many instances of Hamilton's kindliness. A young girl of feeble intellect was under the care of his sister, who one day brought her to the Observatory. She chanced to be left without an attendant in the same room with Hamilton, who employed the better part of the afternoon seeking to interest and amuse her with what is known as the Icosian game.

The deaf and dumb boys of the Claremont Institution visited the Observatory one October, and Hamilton went to infinite pains in showing them the telescopes and some of the heavenly bodies. They afterwards wrote him what he called "a most delightful and characteristic letter of thanks," expressing admiration at the proofs of the Almighty's power, and gratitude for the bread, milk, coffee and jam supplied them by Lady Hamilton. De Morgan was told of the incident, and remarked that "These D.D.'s (deaf and dumb) are like other D.D.'s in wisely linking together the good things of heaven and earth."

Hamilton was very fond of cats, and might often be seen writing some original and profound paper with a kitten or favorite cat on his shoulder, or playfully trying to catch his pen. Think of that, those of you who have roared at members of your household for a fancied interruption when you were engaged with some wretched little problem.

The following anecdote is not wanting in suggestiveness to those of us who are exposed to the criticism of classes : On one occasion when visiting which the their slot again, an fessed his tremendor great ma spoil the ridiculou believe th

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SIR WILLIAM ROWAN HAMILTON.

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en writing e cat on his at, those of a fancied le problem. to those of sion when visiting Lovell Edgeworth's school he gave a question to the boys which they were unable to answer. Possibly he rebuked the boys for their slowness or dulness; at all events he examined his own question again, and found that the solution was impossible. At once he confessed his mistake, for which prompt confession the boys gave him a tremendous cheer. I envy the boys the delicious fun of catching the great mathematician in a mistake, and admire him for not trying to spoil the boys' joke by seeking to sneak out of his blunder. How ridiculous a teacher renders himself who attempts to make his scholars believe that he knows everything and is incapable of error.

It was Hamilton who impressed on the poet Wordsworth, whose intimate friend he was, an adequate conception of the dignity and grandeur of scientific truth. Wordsworth once said to him: "I feel happy in a pleasure rarely enjoyed, that of being in the company of a man to whom I can look up." "If," replied Hamilton, "I am able to look down on you, it is as Lord Rosse looks down in his telescope—to see the stars of heaven reflected there."

The following reply is very clever :--When asked whether he accepted as a truth Locke's comparison of the state of the mind at birth to a sheet of white paper, Hamilton answered, "Yes, but *ruled* paper."

Dean Graves, in his eulogium of Hamilton says:—"His poetic efforts have an additional interest, as exemplifying in his own productions the connection which he so strongly insisted on as existing between the highest provinces of science and the regions of poetry in both of which he maintained there was scope and demand for the exercise of the imaginative faculty. According to him the modern Geometry which deals with the infinites and imaginaries of space, has its beauty and its fascination; and he reckoned the happy daring of such geometers as Poncelet as closely allied to poetry. We happen to know that this view of his as communicated by him to the poet Wordsworth, was to the latter an entirely new revelation, and had the effect of raising his conception of the dignity both of Science and of its most eminent votaries."

Mrs. Wordsworth, after the death of the poet, told De Vere her husband was accustomed to say that Hamilton was the only man who ever reminded him of Coleridge.

The following extract from an address of Hamilton's illustrates, amongst numberless similar illustrations, in what form scientific truth presented itself to him:—"When Professor William Thomson, of Glasgow, was lately speaking in our Mathematical Section of potential and actual energy, I was reminded of some lines in Coleridge's transla-

tion of Schiller's Wallenstein. In that great play the elder Piccolomini is represented as warning his son against the hazards of civil convulsion, and says, respecting the ball when it has left the cannon :—

' It is no longer a dead instrument; It lives, a spirit passes into it.'"

I cannot close better than by quoting a sonnet written by his friend the poet De Vere, to the memory of Hamilton, fifteen years after the latter's death. It shows how intense and enduring an affection the great mathematician inspired amongst such as had the good fortune to be his friends :---

> Friend of past years, the holy and the blest, When all my day shone out, a long sunrise; When aspirations seemed but sympathies, In such familiar nearness were they dressed; When song, with swan-like plumes and starry crest, O'er-circled earth, and beat against the skies, And fearless science raised her reverent eyes From heaven to heaven, that each its God confessed With homage ever widening. Friend beloved, From me those days are passed; yet still, oh, still, This night my heart with influx strange they fill Of beaming memories from my vanished youth : On *thee*—the temporal veil by Death removed— Rests the great vision of Eternal Truth.

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WORK AND ENERGY.

WORK AND ENERGY.

C. A. CHANT, B.A., TORONTO.

Since the acceptance of the principle of the Conservation of Energy as an established scientific truth, the study of Work and Energy in Mechanics has continued to be of increasing value, and is now considered of the very highest importance.

Any one who has attempted to teach Mechanics must have experienced difficulty in obtaining experiments to verify his statements. Some statical laws are not so hard to manage, but those in dynamics give a great deal of trouble to the experimenter, and very seldom can be proved with much accuracy. The best resource, in the absence of simple apparatus which will indicate the truth of what we wish to impress, is, I think, to continually seek for illustrations in the world about us,---the slowing-up railway train or trolley car, to illustrate acceleration; the sailor climbing a mast while the ship is steaming east and drifting north, showing component velocities ; dropping a pebble and timing its fall with a watch to determine the height of a bridge, etc. These are usually qualitative in character, but they certainly assist in forming definite conceptions; and by always referring to them we instil into the learner's mind the fact that formulas, and calculations generally in Mechanics, are transcripts of laws of nature and of her behavior under particular circumstances.

Whether or not we are able to secure satisfactory results in an experiment, I think a very necessary adjunct is numerical calculation. The only way to make our knowledge accurate is to write it down in unambiguous phrases, and with definite mathematical statement.

In a lecture delivered in 1883, Lord Kelvin said : "I often say that when you can measure what you are speaking about, and express it in numbers, you know something about it; but when you cannot measure it, when you cannot express it in numbers, your knowledge is of a meagre and unsatisfactory kind; it may be the beginning of knowledge, but you have scarcely in your thoughts advanced to the stage of science."

No one is better qualified to make such a remark, as the entire life of this illustrious scientist has been an object lesson illustrating the truth of his declaration.

Another prime requisite, which, however, is included in what I have just spoken of, is to insist on keeping in view the denomination of each

er Piccolomini civil convulannon :—

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quantity—that it is a multiple of some perfectly definite unit. In teaching Arithmetic we demand it; its value can hardly be overestimated in teaching Physics. I have seen students in the fourth year in Mathematics and Physics who could not tell you how to measure heat, or that energy is measured in ergs. If a body's mass was m and its velocity v, they could at once say that its kinetic energy was $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$, though to give the unit of m, of v and of $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$ was quite beyond their power. At the present time we are endeavoring to render such cases impossible by trying to impress the elementary facts, and by prescribing suitable laboratory work, and questioning the student while he is doing it.

To be able to handle problems, in mechanics, however, we must see the end from the beginning. It is precisely so in Euclid; if the student has clearly comprehended the line of reasoning in the previous propositions, he will not have serious trouble with simple deductions.

So, on introducing the subject of Work and Energy I make a rapid review of our previously taught principles, generally using this as a suitable opportunity for again interpreting Newton's Laws of Motion. One of the chief factors in Work, is Force, and this at once leads us to the First Law, which gives us a qualitative method for detecting whether Force is present or not. If a body [say on a smooth table] at rest, does not remain so, or if it is moving uniformly in a straight line but does not continue to do so, we are sure Force has produced the change. Whenever the motion of a body has been altered, the guilty intruder which has produced the change is Force.

But this does not go far enough; we want to measure this Force. Let us get down to details. A body rests on the table; in five seconds we see it has acquired a certain velocity, and we say a certain Force has been acting. Suppose now the body's mass was twice as great; how great would be the velocity if the same Force acted? Only half as great, of course. From such considerations we lead to the conclusion that in speaking of a change of motion, both mass and velocity must be considered, or that when Newton says *motion*, we must think of what we call *momentum*. The student will at once agree that the change is in the direction of the Force. Applying the line of reasoning to a body in motion already, we arrive at the principle of the *physical independence of forces*.

Our natural definition of Force is then, that which can produce or destroy momentum, and we measure it by determining what change has been made in the momentum in a certain time.

Let us now get to figures. For unit of mass take one gram, unit

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of length one centimetre, and unit of time one second. Clearly unit of velocity is 1 cm. per sec., and unit of momentum 1 gram with unit velocity. It is unfortunate that we have no accepted name for the unit of momentum. The unit force is soon seen to be that force which acting on a gram of matter for 1 sec. will generate in it a velocity of 1 cm., per sec., in other words will generate unit momentum. This unit we call a dyne. I have found that the best way to drill on these matters is to write out the statements at length, as in the so-called "unitary" method. Thus:—

1 dyne of force act'g on 1 gm. mass for 1 sec. will give vel. 1 cm. per sec. or unit of momentum.

1 dyne of force act'g on 1 gm. mass for 2 secs. will generate 2 cms. per sec.

1	"	""	66	m	66	"	1	"	"	1	"	"	
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P	"	"	66	m	"	""	t	"	"	$\frac{m}{Pt}$	"	""	
		or vel	ocity s	genera	ated	$_Pt$	_	21 60 17		m			

or velocity generated $=\frac{Pt}{m}=v$ say,

$$\therefore Pt = mv,$$

i.e. Force in dynes \times time in seconds

= mass in grams \times units of vel.

= momentum;

or Force in dynes
$$=$$
 $\frac{mv}{t} = \frac{momentum}{time in seconds} = dynes.$

Now, the force of gravity, if allowed to act on any mass free to fall will give it a velocity. Force on 1 gram mass = 1 gm.-force. Now we at once know that,—

1 gm. force on 1 gm. mass for 1 sec. gives it a vel. of 981 cms. per sec but 1 dyne "1""1"""1"""1""

$$\therefore 1 \text{ dyne} = \frac{1}{981} \text{ gm.-force}$$

or $= \frac{1^{th}}{g}$ of a gram-force.

We are now ready to consider some propositions in *Energy*. When we overcome a force through a certain space, work is done, and we define the unit of work or of energy to be

1 dyne force through 1 cm. space and call it one erg, and hence 1 gm.-cm. of work = g ergs.

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Suppose a mass m gms. is carried through a height h cms.; the work done is m

mh gram-cms. = mgh ergs.

 $\therefore P. E.$ at highest point = mgh ergs.

Let it now fall; on reaching the ground again its velocity is v, where $v^2 = 2gh$;

h

 $\therefore, \frac{v^2}{2} = gh,$ and $m \frac{v^2}{2} = mgh.$

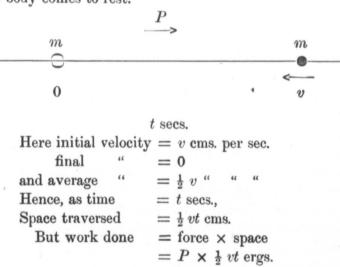
Now energy is entirely kinetic, and is, of course, equal to mgh ergs.

But
$$mgh = \frac{mv^2}{2}$$
,

 \therefore K. E. can be written $\frac{1}{2}$ mv² ergs.

This is, perhaps, the simplest method of obtaining the expression for the K. E. Let us now consider the general case.

Suppose we have a body of mass m gms. having a vel. v cms. per sec. Let a force P dynes be opposed to it, and suppose that in t seconds the body comes to rest.



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WORK AND ENERGY.

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el. v cms. per ose that in t Again in t secs. a momentum mv is destroyed;

$$\therefore \text{ Force} \qquad = \frac{mv}{t} \, \text{dynes} = P \, ;$$

Hence work done $= \frac{mv}{t} \times \frac{1}{2} vt$ ergs

$$= \frac{1}{2} mv^2 \text{ ergs.}$$

And we see that this is the amount of work required to entirely destroy the K. E.

 \therefore K. E. was $\frac{1}{2}$ mv² ergs.

This result can be obtained in a slightly different manner. I shall give it, and in this case use the foot-pound-second units.

Let a force P poundals act on a mass m lbs., originally at rest, and suppose it to obtain a velocity v ft. per sec. in t secs.



As before, average velocity $= \frac{1}{2} v$ ft. per sec.,

and space $= \frac{1}{2} vt$ feet. . Work done $= P \times \frac{1}{2} vt$ foot-poundals. But momentum generated = mv units,

Force
$$= \frac{mv}{t}$$
 pdls. $= P$.

 $\therefore \text{ Work done} \qquad = \frac{mv}{t} \times \frac{1}{2} vt \text{ foot-pdls.}$

· · ·

 $= \frac{1}{2} mv^2$ ft.-pdls.

But the work has been	expended in generating $K. E.$
$\therefore K. E.$ As 1 pdforce	$= \frac{1}{2} mv^2 \text{ ftpdls.}$ = g pdls. force
This K. E.	$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{m}{w^2} t_{\text{-nds}}$

 $=\frac{1}{2}\frac{m}{g}v^2$ ft.-pds. energy, and as we

obtain the mass m by weighing we may say the K. E. = $\frac{1}{2} \frac{W}{a} v^2$ ft.-pds., where W is the weight in lbs.

I shall close by considering one or two simple examples which can be easily solved by the "energy" method.

(1) A body is projected upwards with a velocity v feet per second at an angle a° with the horizontal. How high will it go ?

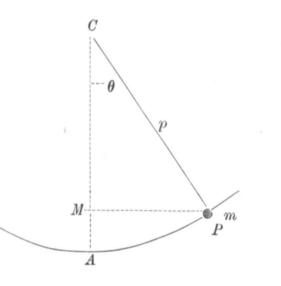
Here the K. $\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} mv^2$ ft.-pdls. if m lbs. = mass. The horizontal component of velocity $= v \cos a$, and at the highest point the velocity

is entirely horizontal and equal to $v \cos a$. Hence we have by equating energy at two points:—

K. E. on projection = $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$ foot-poundals. K. E. at highest pt. = $\frac{1}{2}m(v\cos a)^2$ foot-poundals. P. E. """ = mgh """ $\therefore \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{1}{2}m(v\cos a)^2 + mgh$

and h is determined.

(2) A pendulum bob of mass m grams is attached to a string p cms. long, and is drawn aside through an angle θ° from lowest point, and then let go. Find the velocity at lowest pt.



Let C be centre of arc and A lowest pt. To pull ball up to P it must be raised through a distance AM cms. AM = AC - CM cms. $= AC (1 - \cos \theta)$ cms.

 \therefore work done = $mp (1 - \cos \theta)$ gm.-cms.

$$= mgp (1 - \cos \theta) \operatorname{ergs}$$

At lowest pt. this work has been entirely expended in producing the K. E. which it has there.

Let v = vel. in cms. per sec. at A Then K. E. = $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$ ergs.

$$= mgp (1 - \cos \theta) \operatorname{ergs}$$

 $\therefore v^2 = 2gp \ (1 - \cos \theta)$

I could give many other examples, but think these will suffice.

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HAS MATHEMATICAL EDUCATION IN THE PROVINCE OF ONTARIO DECLINED DURING RECENT YEARS?

A. H. MCDOUGALL, B.A., OTTAWA.

That there has been, to some extent, a decline in the interest taken in mathematical work in our High and Public Schools during recent years, appears to be the general impression. It was the subject of Mr. Robertson's paper of two years ago. The decline in the teaching of Arithmetic in the Public Schools, was discussed in another department of the Association last year.

That such decline should exist, is of the greatest importance, not only to us, who are directly concerned as teachers of Mathematics, but to all who have an interest in the more exact and thorough side of our education. We should carefully consider the causes that lead to such a falling off of the interest that teachers and students take in this part of their work; find out which of these causes we are able to counteract directly, and devise means of mincreasing the thoroughness and usefulness of our work.

It does not appear to me that the discussions of this subject for the last two years, have, as yet, borne much fruit. If that is the case, there is all the more reason why they should be continued until some more satisfactory condition is evolved.

The most important part of this question, affecting as it does the vast majority of our pupils who pass from these schools into active life without going on to higher work; and also having a most important effect on the afterwork of the minority, who go to the High Schools, is the teaching of Arithmetic in the Public Schools. I do not feel that any information at my command is sufficient to enable me to form an accurate opinion of the extent of the decline in the teaching of this subject in the Public Schools, if there has been such a decline. I should very much like to hear, or read, a full discussion of the subject by representative Public and High School men of experience, from both the standpoint of the actual teacher in the schools, and of those who have to build on the foundation laid them. Is that foundation as well laid now as it was some years ago? Let us hear some evidence on this point.

Mr. Arthur Brown in his paper read last year before the Public School Section, said :---

"Twenty years ago teachers prided themselves upon * * their

skill in Mathematics, and the measure of their success as teachers was the ability of their older pupils to (among other things) solve intricate problems in Arithmetic." And, again, speaking of to-day, he said: "They are pigmies in Arithmetic."

But it is not only in the solving of problems that there is a decline. Pupils will not solve intricate problems if they are not grounded in fundamental operations. Mr. C. B. Edwards, in his paper before the Public School Section last year, in speaking of this subject, said : "Last autumn I made a careful test of a Fourth Class of about fifty, and incredible as it may seem, twenty at least, were failures in multiplication and division with respect to accuracy and speed." Every High School teacher has found abundant evidence of the same lack of accuracy and speed in fundamental calculations. Such falling off is a most serious matter for those who go from the Public Schools into the work of the farm or workshop, where both the facts and the training of Arithmetic are of such great importance.

There is one cause that, in my opinion, has had a great influence on Public School Arithmetic.

In 1867, there were 4,890 Public School teachers in the Province, of whom 2,489 were males and 2,041 females, approximately $51^{\circ}/_{\circ}$ were males and $49^{\circ}/_{\circ}$ females. Fifteen years later, in 1882, there were 6,857 teachers, of whom 3,062 were males and 3,795 females, or $45^{\circ}/_{\circ}$ males and $55^{\circ}/_{\circ}$ females.

Ten years later, in 1892, there were 8,480 teachers, of whom 2,770 were males and 5,710 females, 33% males and 67% females. That is, in fifteen years the percentage of male teachers decreased from 51% of the whole to 45%, and in the succeeding ten years it decreased from $45^{\circ}/_{\circ}$ to $33^{\circ}/_{\circ}$. If we assume that the decrease in the number of male teachers would have a tendency to affect the interest that the pupils take in the more virile parts of the Public School programme, and that in such matters the effect follows the cause, at some interval, our assumption is not antagonistic to the observed fact of the decrease in the interest taken in Arithmetic. It will not be an answer to this to cite instances of female teachers who have been exceedingly successful in passing pupils through examinations in Arithmetic. I believe that such instances are the exception to the general rule, and further, that it is possible to train up pupils to follow certain type solutions, with success, as far as immediate examinations are concerned, but without a proper measure of that education, that drawing out of the mental faculties, that will develop independent methods of thought, and lead the pupils on to mastering other work. I do not know that

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We have then a coincidence between the decrease in the percentage of male teachers, and in the interest taken in Arithmetic. There is another coincidence equally striking, and that is in the amount of arithmetical training required for first class teachers.

Formerly, the aspiring teacher, who desired to obtain a first class certificate, had before him the fact that his Arithmetic must be thoroughly prepared, because after passing the third and second class standards, he still had a more difficult examination in that subject. The subject was consequently in his mind for years. He saw the necessity for acquiring more thorough methods and for extending his information. With the proposed new arrangement, his only care will be to get $33\frac{1}{3}$ % at the third class examination.

The two main features in the Public School teachers' work are English and Arithmetic. But there is a vast difference in the provisions made for his training in those subjects. English, and rightly so, will be before him throughout the whole course. Not so with Arithmetic. And I believe that few will say that a thorough knowledge of the second is so much more easily obtained than of the first. Now, I am satisfied with the proposed arrangement as far as Arithmetic for the pass matriculant, who does not propose to teach the subject, is concerned; but I contend, and I believe that the contention will be sustained by the great majority of those interested in our schools, either as teachers or otherwise, that an exception should be made for those who do propose to teach this subject, and that in this case the programmes for teachers' examinations and for matriculation should not be the same. The Chancellor of the University, Hon. Edward Blake, in his address at Convocation, in 1892, in speaking of the paper then lately issued by Mr. Seath, said: "I will only suggest that there may properly be a distinction between the standards for teachers' certificates and those for matriculants. At any rate as regards certain subjects, for example, Mathematics and English, in which one class asks the power at once to teach, while the other seeks only for the opportunity to learn."

This suggestion, so clearly placed before the authorities at the beginning of the controversy, has apparently been completely ignored and forgotten in framing the new regulations.

It is stated in the proposed regulations that the future standard in Arithmetic and English Grammar at the Primary Examination is to be the same as it has been in the past for Junior Leaving. But what

about the thousands of teachers who now have primary certificates obtained on the old standard, or who will obtain them this summer, and who will furnish the majority of the Junior Leaving candidates for some years to come? That there is, at least, a temporary decline to the old primary standard is obvious.

The decline in interest in this department is shown by the almost total disappearance of discussion of problems and points in connection with mathematical work at teachers' institutes. As far as my observation goes it has become an exceedingly rare thing for a mathematical subject to be considered at a meeting of teachers. Greater readiness on our own part in taking advantage of the opportunities that present themselves would do much towards making an improvement in this direction. Discussions of methods of teaching Mathematics are of undoubted value, but there is a charm about the actual solution of problems that should not be lost sight of. There is a general want of interest, at present, in the teaching of Arithmetic. Men talk about subjects they are interested in, and conversely become interested in subjects that they are brought to talk about.

There is a growing tendency to introduce the Yankee idea of getting over difficulties by leaving them out. For example, our Public School Arithmetic has left out everything in the shape of complicated fractional expressions, and it has become somewhat fashionable to sneer at anything of that kind. As a natural consequence, there is a growing tendency in our classes in the High School to shirk algebraic problems that involve complicated expressions. Our pupils have not had the old time training that made such work easy. Recurring decimals have disappeared from Public School work, and the principal reason given is that they are not used by professional calculators. But even the few professional calculators trained in our Public Schools would be none the worse of having their attention directed to the simple theory of such decimals.

The High School Arithmetic has a well graded set of examples on annuities, that has proved to be of great interest and value to both teachers and pupils, and was a good preparation for the interest forms and annuities of the Senior Leaving grade. But here again the Yankee idea has prevailed and henceforth we are to have Arithmetic omitting annuities.

Not to leave out an item on the contra side of the account; there is a part of the work in which an improvement has been made in recent years, both in our text-books and in the questions on the examination papers, a and inter

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papers, and that is with regard to the distinction between discount and interest.

In one respect the study of Mathematics in our schools has changed in recent years, that it is no longer progressive. It is not at present advancing along old lines or expanding into new ones.

Some years ago the study of Mathematics was looked on as the strong feature of our educational development in this Province; and while it was desirable that the relative standing of other departments should be improved, it should have been by levelling up the weak and not by levelling down the strong. But that has not been the method of all those who have been in a position to influence our work. Has there not been an obvious desire to put the accent on the word easy in the deductions of the Geometry, and in the examples of the Arithmetic and Algebra papers? I am inclined to think that their success has been more marked in destroying interest in one department, than it has been in building it up in the others.

The work in Geometry, is at present, and has been for some time in an unsatisfactory condition. It is fair to assume that the work in this subject, as in all others, will always fall below the standard set for it, so that if we wish for good results, we must have a reasonably high standard. Why should we not assume in our curriculum that the first book would be thoroughly prepared for the examination of the Second Form, and the second and third books for that of the Third Form. As it is, the work for Form IV., is put down as Books I., II., III., IV. and VI., with definitions of Book V., and deductions. That is, it is assumed that the first three books have not been thoroughly mastered in the lower forms, and as a natural consequence of this assumption, it follows that a large part of the Senior Leaving and Honor Matriculation paper will be taken from these three books. Adherence to this arrangement will lead to just such papers as we have had more than once in recent years, on which Senior Leaving candidates could pass and Matriculation candidates obtain honors with the slightest or no knowledge of Book VI. On such a paper as that of 1892, a candidate could get his 331% without knowing anything beyond the third book.

This arrangement reduces the study of Geometry in the Upper Form to something very much like a farce.

Now that Arithmetic is to be left off the work of Form III., it is only reasonable to expect that a larger share of time can be given to Algebra and Geometry in Forms III. and IV.

I suggest the following as an alternative to the present curriculum in Geometry :---

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Form II.—Book I., with easy deductions.

Form III.—Books II. and III., with propositions 2, 3, 4, 5 and 10 of Book IV. and deductions.

Form IV.—The theory of proportion and of similar figures, as contained in the definitions of Book V. and in Book VI.; theorems of Ceva and Menelaus, with applications, properties of triangles, of a complete quadrilateral and quadrangle, harmonic properties of lines and circles, poles and polars.

The course for Form IV. to follow the lines laid down in the syllabus of the Society for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching, and using the text of the first six or seven chapters of the treatise on Modern Plane Geometry, by Richardson and Ramsey.

Many of the theorems included in this work are given in the appendices to the third, fourth and sixth books of Mackay's Euclid. They require only a knowledge of the first three books and of similar triangles.

By adopting such a course for Form IV., our students could be got to take much greater interest in Geometry than they do, and the work done would supply a connecting link between the Elementary Geometry of the High School and the Conic Sections and Modern Geometry of the University that has been missing in the past. THE TE

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THE TEACHING OF HISTORY IN OUR HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGIATE INSTITUTES.

GEORGE D. FERGUSON, B.A., KINGSTON.

It may almost seem superfluous to discuss the question, What is the use of historical knowledge, or is an acquaintance with the events, the men and the ideas of the past of any real value; has it any practical bearing on the conduct or the happiness of our lives? And yet so little attention has been given to the study of History, it has been crowded into so small a space by the great pressure of other studies, that it may be quite proper to say a few words on its importance. There are still some who urge that it is useless to spend time in examining what they are pleased to call exploded fallacies, or in recalling theories or even events which, however they may have influenced their own generation, are now of little value. It is sufficient for us, it is said, to enjoy our present advantages, and it is immaterial how these advantages have been gained. It is acknowledged that we possess great privileges, as of political liberty, and freedom ir the expression of opinion, but it is not necessary that we should recall the struggles by which these advantages and privileges have been gained. The picture is often a sad one, and it may not be desirable to reproduce it. Our life is in the present, and that is enough for us-let the dead bury its dead. Cobden, in one of his impetuous moods, said that to his mind there was more valuable knowledge to be gathered from a single copy of the Times than from all the pages of Thucydides.

But, on the other hand, let us imagine, if we can, the whole history of the past blotted out, and yet the world just as it is to-day, and man possessed of the same or equal faculties and advantages, and the question suggests itself how far would his faculties and advantages be of any use to him, would they not rather tend to augment his helplessness, his confusion and misery? It is a very trite saying that history is philosophy teaching by experience, and it is quite true that we need this experience, experience gathered from the past, to teach us not only how to appreciate, but also how to use our advantages. Let us illustrate our meaning by examples taken from some of the Sciences or Arts. The mathematician begins his study with a text-book which was

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written by a Greek some 2,000 years ago. The designer of a modern steam engine finds it necessary for him to know the gradual advance made from the rude mechanism of Watt, with the many struggles and failures-struggles and successes, till he arrives at the very perfect steam engine of the present day. This is equally true and equally important in regard to the advance which has been made in our knowledge of the power and the uses of electricity. The student should note each step taken in developing this Science. Indeed it is quite evident that we cannot hope to make any advance in any one Science till we know what has been already accomplished, and that the ground behind us is secure. In philosophy the student who hopes to make any real progress must begin at the beginning, and mark each stage in the development. He must make himself familiar with the teaching of Plato and Aristotle; he must follow on through the long and dismal waiting of the Middle Ages till Descartes, and Spinoza, and Leibnitz gave new life to the study, and Kant, and Fichte, and Hegel each contributed his own cnthusiasm, and his help to raise philosophy out of the mere sphere of speculation into that of truth. The same is equally true in regard to Art. While, then, we cannot but admit, in the case of the Sciences, or of Art, or of Philosophy, not merely the advantage, but the absolute necessity, of a knowledge of the progress which has already been made in each instance, we cannot but see that the same holds good to even greater extent in regard to History in general. Even in reference to the Sciences, or to the Arts, and Philosophy, of which we have been speaking, it is very important that we should know the circumstances which have contributed to their growth, the social atmosphere in which they were nurtured. History is a wide sphere, and includes a knowledge of development in every form. But any one who holds that a knowledge of History is of no use is not consistent with himself, for he has been directed in the course he has chosen by tutors whom he respects, and who have themselves been indebted to the past. In every stage of his life, too, he will find himself surrounded and influenced by powers which he cannot resist, and which have their origin and derive their force from the past. The society in which he moves, the civilization and the culture which he enjoys are not the spasmodic growth of to-day; they are the result of the struggles which have taken place perhaps in far distant ages, and no one can properly appreciate his advantages and his privileges till he realizes and sympathizes with the struggles by which these advantages and privileges have been gained.

A mere casual visitor to the British Houses of Parliament may,

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indeed, derive pleasure and information from listening to some debate on a constitutional subject; but he will derive very much greater pleasure and advantage in listening to the same debate if he knows something of the history of the Parliament, if he is familiar with the growth of the Constitution, which finds an important expression in the Parliament; if, for instance, he is able to trace its growth for well nigh fifteen centuries; if he can discover that spirit of freedom which Montesquieu traces to our Teutonic ancestors in the primæval forests of Germany, or, without going so far back, can watch its growth in the early constitutions of the Octarchic kingdoms, or in the united kingdom of Egbert, of Alfred, of Canute, or of Edward the Confessor, or under the Norman, the Plantagenet, the Tudor and Stuart kings, each period so different, and yet each adding something, till the Constitution has reached its present almost perfect form of development.

To prize the institutions under which we live we require to know something of the contests by which they have been won, to understand, to realize these struggles in which our ancestors spent their substance, and laid down their lives. It is this which appeals to our nobler sympathies, which calls forth a spirit of manliness, and teaches us to cherish those institutions which are endeared to us by the trials, and sealed to us by the blood which time and again has been shed in gaining or maintaining them. But it is not only in regard to the development of our own institutions that we may find the advantages of a knowledge of History, nor is it merely to the politician to whom this study is important, we are each of us interested in the great social and political problems of the day. At no period have these questions been so general, or so engrossing, and they can only be studied in the light which History throws on them. Mere theoretical knowledge will not prove satisfactory, these questions must be examined in the light which experience gives to them, and this gathered from various sources. Greece, especially Athens, for instance, with its spasmotic but marvelously quick growth in speculation, in Art, in Literature, and in its constitution, defective indeed because so limited, presents many important lessons which we may not neglect. Or Rome, in its several phases, as a kingdom, as a republic, or as an all-absorbing empire, presenting the operation of law and order in almost every form and application, less speculative, less artistic, less poetical than Athens, but more practical, building up a Constitution which, with all its defects, must still command our admiration, and when that Constitution proved too narrow for so large an empire, and when that empire was crumbling under the pressure of the Gothic tribes, bequeathing its laws, its municipal institutions, and the very essence of its Constitution to modern Europe.

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Or later, take France as presenting some of the most striking features of more modern government. France with its fullest development of the feudal system governing with the harsh hand of selfishness and violence; with its communes struggling for their enfranchisement, and gaining it by the aid of that power which after a time was to destroy their liberties; or its ecclesiastical institutions so independent in their internal government, as well as in their financial and judicial, each and all of these gradually giving away to that monarchy which from utter weakness rose to arbitrary power, in its turn to yield to that fate which by the unalterable law of God's righteousness must overhang despotism in every form.

There is not a page of History that is not fraught with lessons of the deepest and the widest importance, lessons which in our day we may not neglect. We cannot take up a daily paper without noticing some discussion, the true solution of which is only to be found in a know-ledge of History, and just because that knowledge is so often wanting no real solution is gained.

But while the necessity of a knowledge of History ought to be apparent to any thinking mind, we may not hold the same views as to the form which the study of History ought to take. There is such a large variety of intellectual gifts, and they are influenced by so many different tendencies, that while we may agree as to the object to be had in view, we may differ as to the road by which that object is to be reached. But our purpose must always be to reproduce the past as faithfully and as clearly as we possibly can, to realize its spirit, to penetrate into its inner heart, and read the motives which were animating it; but also to trace its connection, for History is a continuous advance, here and there interrupted and diverted, and even broken by changes in the plot, and yet always presenting a continuous whole, the threads of which we require to gather up and again weave together, determining the just and real value of the men and their actions as they pass before us.

It is interesting and important to remember that there was a time when history and poetry and religion were inseparably blended, when it was sought to give to the past a revived spirit and a renewed vigor, always with a great moral object in view. It was the immortal fibre of truth which it was sought to lay hold of, and by the help of a conscious and realizing imagination to present in a living garb. This is the spirit in which Homer sought to reproduce the scenes of the Trojan war, or in which Herodotus narrates the earlier history of the nations, dedicating his several books to the Muses, or in which Thucythe long v rates, and Syracuse. history an Aeschylus tragic poe cal, but th that they reality and moral less

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Coming down nearer to our own time, in the age of Elizabeth, resembling in so many respects the age of Pericles, we have the many historical plays of Shakespeare, where the most dreary period of English History, the long period of the wars of the Roses, is presented to us with such wonderful distinctness, when a Falstaff or a Gloucester, a Henry of Lancaster or a Richard of York, are made to live over again, and we are enabled to enter into their spirit, to read their motives, to feel that life is neither all sadness nor all mirth, but that in these historical dramas there is a depth, an earnestness, a vividness, and a truthfulness to life, and yet a real beauty covering and animating but never hiding the truth and the moral lessons which they convey.

We have spoken of the earlier periods when History was presented in the powerful living forms of poetic imagery, but we do not always find this living element in History. As we pass to Rome we miss in the Roman historians this realistic poetry. The Romans had not that imagination which gives life to History. In Tacitus we have a sincere respect for truth, and a tragic solemnity, largely, no doubt, arising from the peculiar character of the period when he wrote, and we notice the same though perhaps in a less degree in Livy; but we miss the graphic power, and the deep emotion of Thucydides, and we have no reprcsentative of Aeschylus or Sophocles or Euripides. There are two elements wanting in the Roman historians, the poetic and the religious. Scepticism had already sapped the principles of religion, and the historians represent humanity without God, and they therefore fail to give a proper dignity to humanity; it is not humanity with those nobler and more generous feelings which call forth our sympathy. With the fall of Rome we find a new state of things. The Gothic tribes were eminently prosaic; they had very great vigor, but they wanted the finer sympathies, which give pleasure and the more quiet force to life. None of their earlier poetry or history has come down to us.

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The Sagas, and Beowulf, and the Nibelungen Lieder belong to a little later date, but these certainly do give a very vivid representation of the events they record.

In the Feudal period there were really only two classes of succeety recognized, the Feudal Lords and the Clergy. The Feudal Lords living isolated in their castles, uncultured, harsh, and whose only pleasure was in the chase and in the battlefield. The Clergy immured for the most part in convent walls, and taking little interest in the world around them. Christianity had gradually extended itself, but it was the coarser form of Christianity, and only here and there was there anything higher, such as is presented in the hymns of St. Bernard, or in the theological treatises of an Alcuin, an Anselm, or an Abelard. But the monks in their cloisters did not fail to record the few events which came under their notice. Their vision was very limited, but their annals, such as they are, have come down to us, and the study of them is very important, for they furnish us with the materials out of which we have to construct the History of the period. But these monks, shut up from the world, leading a purely ascetic life were almost entirely without imagination, they had little sympathy with the passions, the loves and the hates, the hopes and the fears, and the struggles which were going on around them. Nowhere are we made to feel so strongly the utter absence of the happy union of imagination, and religion, of that imagination which can vivify the past, and infuse a new vigor into it, or that religion which finds that underlying all there are great principles-the principles of the nature and the will of the Almighty Ruler of the Universe; and to our mind these are elements essential to all true History.

History must undoubtedly be based on facts diligently sought, and carefully and critically ascertained, but we must also bring to this study that poetic power which restores life to these facts, and further we must look for, and seek to trace those great principles according to which history has certainly been developed, and in which we shall discover the direction of the Sovereign Rules, or in other words read God in history.

It is doubtful whether we shall ever return to that early simple form in which History was closely blended with poetry and religion, nor is it perhaps altogether desirable that we should do so, still we should always seek to preserve the spirit of that early History. Of our modern writers of History Carlyle seems to us to approach this spirit most closely, as in his French Revolution, and in his Frederick the Great, though this is a little too protracted, and it seems to us in a slightly less degree, in poetic ele feel that, his facts, into his n imaginativ depict the

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degree, in his Cromwell. Freeman, to our mind, rather fails in the poetic element. With all his many excellencies, and we cannot but feel that, in spite of adverse criticism, he is most careful in gathering his facts, and is thoroughly reliable, yet he fails to infuse a real spirit into his narrative; it wants life and vigor. He appears to lack that imaginative quality which would have enabled him to realize and depict the life of the period.

This, too, is the fault of Gardiner in his History of the Stuarts. He certainly has neither the facile pen nor the imaginative power of Macaulay. But Macaulay, on the other hand, is too one-sided, he is too little careful of the truth so long as he can present an attractive picture, or form a well balanced sentence. The German historians are very accurate, and thoroughly reliable as to facts, but they too often lack the imaginative power. Giesebrecht, and Von Sybel in his later writings, seem to have more of it.

Now we go a step further, and maintain that the teacher of History, not less than the writer of History, ought to possess in a very marked degree those qualifications to which throughout this paper we have attached special importance, and which we have tried to illustrate. He should have a thorough knowledge of the facts, but he should also have that imaginative power which will enable him to realize those facts, and to infuse life into the period; and, still further, should have that philosophic and religious spirit which shall discover underlying all a continuous development under the direction of the Great Divine

A child will always be attracted and interested by a narrative which has some life in it. We cannot imagine anything more uninteresting, or rather more utterly distasteful to a child, than to give him a few dreary lifeless facts, which he has to commit to memory; perhaps some dates, such as are represented in what are called Topical Histories, which have been well styled "the triumph of the examiner, and the despair of the practical man." Than this we would far rather put into the hands of the child some of Sir Walter Scott's novels, such as Quintin Durward or Ivanhoe, or the Monastery, or Woodstock, or Peveril of the Peak, or any one of Shakespeare's historical dramas. There may be errors in each or all of these, errors in Chronology or Geography, as when Scott introduces Robin Hood into Ivanhoe; nevertheless they will create an interest in the mind of the child, and he will follow the narrative with pleasure, while it is quite possible to rectify any errors. We admit that Shakespeare may not always be strictly accurate in his facts, but certainly he did.attempt to reproduce the spirit of the period

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he presents, and we maintain that he succeeded to a very remarkable degree.

We take it that the purpose of education is to create in the child an appetite, and when this appetite is created, and the assimilating power is well developed, we may give stronger food. But in the first place we must tempt the appetite by presenting dainty and attractive dishes. But what have our schools been doing in the past? So far as we can learn they have been trying to tempt the appetites of the pupils with the very driest of dry bones.

We are sure you will pardon our saying that we think the Educational Department has mistaken the purpose of education, not only in regard to History, but in every other department of study. The system has been to store the minds of the children with facts—facts, facts, and ever and again facts, and nothing but facts—surely forgetting that nothing is more likely to surfeit the mind than dry facts, and that the processes by which these facts have been arrived at are of equal, if not of greater, importance than the facts themselves.

There is another point to which we wish to attach some importance —the connection and continuity of History. Take, for instance, the History of England, and how constant, how consistent, and how gradual has been the growth of its social, political and constitutional life.

We cannot accept the theory of the Positivist School of History; but as little can we accept the utterly unphilosophical view of Mr. Goldwin Smith, that History is little else than a bundle of fortuities. There is a close connection in History, and there is a development more or less regular. There is a current in the stream, and though there may be eddies diverting its course for a time, or the wind may blow against it and apparently turn the stream back, yet it will be found that there is always a current, here running more swiftly, and there more slowly, but still ever making steady advance, and we think the pupil will always find pleasure in following the stream and noting its changes, for even in mere motion there is always something interesting. But here a difficulty presents itself, our schools must almost of necessity confine themselves to a limited period of History. The period prescribed for honor work in the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes is that of the Tudors and the Stuarts. Undoubtedly a most interesting period, but not marked by any great originality, so far as regards constitutional development, except, perhaps, the changes in the Parochial system necessitated by the confiscation of the monasteries. It was a period when little was added to the Constitution, but rather a period when the principles of the Constitution were being put to the test. Take, for mere exp time, of v Ship mon which aft there are in the Hi back to able to ga weave the text-book be able to points res cumstance possible.

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ory; but Goldwin There is e or less may be gainst it there is e slowly, upil will inges, for ut here a v confine ribed for s that of g period, constitu-Parochial It was a a period the test. Take, for instance, the Habeas Corpus Act, and it is little else than a mere express statement, called forth by the circumstances of the time, of what had already been laid down in the Magna Charta, or Ship money, or Tonnage, or Pound.ge, or Distraint of Knighthood, which after the lapse of centuries Charles I. sought to re-enact; and there are many such instances. Now, these occupy a prominent place in the History of the period, but they can only be explained by going back to a much earlier period. The teacher ought, therefore, to be able to gather up the threads of the History and follow them back, and weave them into a continuous whole. It may be necessary to use a text-book, but the teacher should be able to implement this; he should be able to take up the connecting links, to show how the constitutional points rest on a past more or less distant, when and under what circumstance they had arisen, and he must do this as graphically as possible.

An experience of twenty years of teaching History has convinced us of the very great difficulty of isolating a period of History, for each period is so interrelated with other periods; yet History has become so vast a field that the selection of a limited period has become absolutely necessary, and an accurate knowledge of a limited period is more valuable than a discursive vie v of a more extended; and even our best wriers of History are obliged to confine themselves to a comparatively few years. Still the teacher ought to be familiar with a much wider field than that over which he has to lead his pupils; he should know the continuity of History, and should be able to recognize the great principles which have been at work, and how these have developed their several results, and from this point of view we regard History as a deeply philosophical study.

We recognize the necessity of using text-books in teaching History in the schools, but the Department ought to see that these text-books are the very best. Green's History of the English People is an excellent book, but covering such an extensive period, it at least in the smaller edition, deals with each epoch very briefly, and it were better if possible to prescribe a single book dealing with the special period to be studied. Schmitz's History of Greece and Rome is very prosaic, it is a very inanimate narrative, presenting a list of names, and events of minor importance, and of dates which are very confusing to a pupil, and giving him no idea of Greek or Roman political or social life.

It has been suggested, in regard to English History, that the biographical sketches of the twelve leading British Statesmen, published by Macmillan, might be used with advantage. Certainly these sketches

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are most interesting, but, to our mind, they are too isolated, they centre too much in the policy of an individual, and it is the history of the people in their growth as a people, and in their various relations which we wish to understand. For instance, the sketches presented of Henry VII. and Elizabeth are graphic, and interesting, and so far as they go give an admirable idea of these sovereigns, but when they treat of policy it is the policy of these sovereigns, and they convey a very imperfect idea of the social and political development of the people. Of the period between Elizabeth and William III. Cromwell is alone chosen, as apparently the only great statesman of the period, whose life is deemed worthy of consideration, but it is Cromwell's own life that is treated of, and yet there was perhaps no period in English History when the popular element was so strong in both Church and State, and no period when the lessons to be gathered are so important.

And now in conclusion let us once more emphasize what we have sought to convey, that History is a continuous narrative, and that though it may be necessary to select a limited period we must never lose sight of its continuity, but must be able to connect the links in the chain. Our main object, however, must always be to reproduce the life of the period which we are studying, to discover the motives, and the forces which were at work, in the general development, and the direction in which that development was tending. We must also seek to cultivate that historical imagination, which, while it can only grow out of a full and truthful knowledge of the facts, must endeavor to give those facts a living form, to enter into the inner life of the period, to read the motives which were actuating the leading spirits and to portray this as graphically as possible. But the teacher should also lead his pupils to recognize that there were great principles at work, in accordance with which the development of the period was advancing, and he may trace the existence of moral laws, which no more nations than individuals may neglect. Let us further say that we believe that the teachers should go to the original authorities, that they should study the contemporary writers, and make themselves familiar with these in order that they may understand how these contemporaries looked at the events which were passing around them.

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ENTRANCE EXAMINERS.

PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

ENTRANCE EXAMINERS.

R. P. EDDY, CLAREMONT.

Before taking up this subject, it may be wise on my part to explain what line I intend to take in introducing it. Shortly after accepting the responsibility of reading a paper on Entrance Examiners and Examinations, I was favored with a copy of the series of resolutions adopted by the Wentworth Teachers' Association at their last session. Among them I found much that I intended discussing, and as these resolutions are to be submitted for your consideration, I need not touch on matters which they embrace. As the Entrance Examinations are on Public School work it seems but fair that Public School teachers should conduct these examinations and read the papers. My only regret is, in bringing such an important matter before you, that so good a cause has not a better advocate.

I can, at least, outline my views on Entrance Examinations, having specially in mind the reading of the answer papers, leaving it to others to supply any points not mentioned in the discussion that will no doubt follow my few introductory remarks.

It might, perhaps, be argued that any radical change in the law governing this examination would be superfluous, seeing that the department has given notice that it will be superseded by the Public School Leaving as soon as circumstances permit. That point falls to the ground when it can so easily be shown that any argument in favor of Entrance Examinations is equally applicable in Public School Leaving regarding the conducting of these examinations.

Looking at the manner of conducting these examinations outside of the cities and large towns, one would suppose that all the Public School teacher had to do was to prepare the candidates and the High School masters and assistants would attend to the rest, including the gathering in of the fees.

The law allows of Public School teachers being represented on the different Boards, but, in practice, presiding at the examinations—reading the answers, etc., rests with the Inspectors and High School teachers.

That this state of affairs is wrong in principle is clearly evidenced by

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the action of High School masters regarding the reading of candidates' answers at the Departmental Examinations. They contended, and very reasonably, too, that the proper persons to read the answers of candidates from the secondary schools were their teachers, who were in active touch with them, and who knew so well what should be expected of them on examination. This view of the case, as you well know, was accepted by the Department, so that now the answers of the Primary and Leaving candidates are read by the High School teachers. I believe the Honor candidates are in charge of the University Professors.

Does not every argument used by the High School teachers in securing simple justice to themselves apply with equal force to the Entrance and Public School Leaving Examinations ? We, as Public School teachers, ask to read the answers of our pupils before handing them over to the High Schools. I do not think it advisable to set the headmasters to one side entirely. They should have something to say about the scholastic standing of pupils so soon to be taken under their control. But would not the setting of the papers be sufficient to enable the High School teachers to keep the standard for promotion from retrograding. The only real substantial reason I can see urged against Public School teachers conducting the Entrance is lack of ability to examine the papers of the candidates through deficient scholarship. One of the strong points of our High School teachers against the "old regime," if I may so call it, of examining was "that many of the examiners were unfitted for it because of being out of the work, and, therefore, not in a position to pass judgment on the status of candidates trained by modern methods. This objection cannot be raised against the gentlemen who read the Entrance papers now, but, I think it can be clearly shown that Public School teachers could do this work as well, if not better, than it is at present performed. It is a well-known fact that one's environment has a great deal to do with his work in all walks of life. The very fact of teachers in the secondary schools being engaged in developing the work originated by the primary teachers, to my mind militates against their passing a just estimate on the value of an answer given by an Entrance pupil. High School teachers, in their teaching, are associated with minds that are beyond the little world of the Public School. The answers of High School pupils must, of necessity, rise to a higher plane than those of common school pupils, and the mind of a High School examiner through his environment insensibly requires a finished answer to satisfy his judgment. But, how can you expect an answer that is a model for composition a fifteen y development taught th of their fir

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position and accuracy from pupils ranging from the ages of twelve to fifteen years? Their answers will correspond to their age and development, and I contend that the Public School teacher who has taught them for years, is the only one who can pass a correct opinion of their fitness for promotion.

The Entrance examiner now whittles both ends of the stick and receives the fees as well. He has to say, to a large extent, what ground the examination will cover, and condescends to examine the pupils his less fortunate brother has recommended as fit to try. How is it that so many Entrance candidates fail in proportion to the number trying ? One explanation is that teachers send them up before they are fit; another is that so many pupils want to pass because their friends or relations have succeeded, and insist on trying notwithstanding their success would be a sheer impossibility. No doubt these reasons are correct in many instances, but not in the majority of cases. Public School teachers have often been disappointed at the failure of many of their pupils whose scholarship would justify their admission into a higher form. The fact of crowded High Schools or otherwise has much to do with our succeeding in some cases. To instance an example in my own experience : A High School Principal said to me just before the last December Entrance, in 1891, I think, "Do not send up weak candidates this time; our school is full, and we will only accept those of high standing." I do not find any fault with this piece of advice, no doubt given with the best intention in the world, but supposing a neighboring school has a small attendance and therefore accepts candidates who are not the cream, so to speak, of the applicants. What is the result? The Public School teachers who send their pupils to the first mentioned school do not succeed in passing a large per cent. of their class, whilst those teachers who send to the other school are lauded to the skies by the local papers for their grand success in an examination so severe that only forty per cent. succeeded in such and such a school, meaning the one which only accepts the best students. How many teachers send up a good class one year and do well, but send up a better the year following only to be mortified at so many failures; the real reason being that the High Schools are full and do not want pupils, or vice versa.

One of the chief reasons for a change in the manner of conducting this examination is its lack of uniformity, which I have attempted to show by the two instances just read. Others may be multiplied, these secondary schools may be too limited in teachers, making a large increase in their pupils impossible.

These minor difficulties might be overcome if public opinion were only just, but every teacher present knows that nine-tenths of the ratepayers in their sections judge their teacher's success by his ability to pass a large number of entrants each year. This being the case, what remedy may be proposed to meet this difficulty ?

I propose that the answer papers from the different High School centres in each inspectorate be read by a Central Board, composed principally of Public School teachers and Inspector. This arrangement would secure uniformity for each county or inspectoral division and would put the teachers in all parts of the same county on a par when judged by results. Placing Public School teachers on the Board and omitting the High School Principals is not unjust when we compare their salaries with those of their less fortunate brethren in the lower forms.

After all, the Public School is the place where the foundation is laid and the main supports put in. The secondary schools just continue the structure without any of the real drudgery of the lower forms. The few "plums" in the profession are not fairly distributed. The 130 or 140 High School centres throughout the Province have, at a moderate estimate, 15,000 applicants for admission to the High Schools each year. A small percentage of the fee exacted from each candidate goes for stationery, etc., and the rest should go to the teachers who have prepared these candidates, but does it? As far as my experience goes, we are not " in it," nor are we likely to be, unless we present our just rights to the Department as persistently as the High School teachers have presented theirs.

Our holidays are so arranged that we cannot engage in any lucrative employment, even if exhausted nature would allow of our so doing during vacations, and the labor of reading a few hundred Entrance answers, at the price paid, would be welcomed by a good many underpaid teachers in the Public Schools of to-day who find it hard enough work to make both ends meet, let alone laying up anything for a rainy day.

I do not suppose that we can be charged with insufficient learning to read Entrance papers intelligibly. It stands to reason that any teacher who can successfully teach Entrance or Public School Leaving work has sufficient to make him competent to act as an examiner, but that matter is only one of detail. The main question is, shall the change suggested in this paper be agitated, because of greater uniformity, fairness, justice and success, if it be brought about, or shall we let things drift and go on in the old way. It may be charged against me to-day, tha to secure a which I am asking wha pupils prior As I un

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to-day, that all I have said or written was for a selfish motive, that is to secure a greater share of the extras to the Public School teachers of which I am one. It is not selfish to speak out for right, and I am only asking what should have been granted us long ago to examine our own pupils prior to their passing into the higher grades.

As I understood that my province was to introduce the subject of "Entrance Examiners and Examinations," perhaps I have detained you long enough, leaving to other teachers present the task of supplementing my opening remarks, and thanking you for your attentive hearing, I shall conclude by moving the following resolution (see Minutes of this Department).

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PUBLIC SCHOOL LEAVING EXAMINATION.

JOHN STRACHAN, ROCKWOOD.

I humbly crave the indulgence of the Association during the few observations I shall make on our school system as affected more directly by the Public School Leaving Examination. Our Educational System in Ontario is one of which we justly feel proud, and of which we may be pardoned for boasting. It is so constructed that it presents a continuous grade from the lowest branch of Public School work to the highest honors in our University course. But no matter how complete a system may appear to us, there are in it little matters of detail, which at times strike us as being in need of reformation, and which we feel anxious to correct so that the whole system may appear in a more perfected state. It is a quality of the human mind never to be satisfied with its work. No matter how grand or imposing a structure may appear, he who planned it can see some defective parts, which, if he had the opportunity he would rectify. He who now has control of our System of Education saw, a few years ago, a flaw in it and he hastened to amend it. He noticed that there was a certain trap-door, through which there was dropping, year by year, some material which if retained and polished, would make some of the brightest gems in the whole casket of education. It was a painfully apparent fact that a large majority of our pupils finished their school education with the Entrance Examination and turned their attention to other matters. The Entrance Examination was evidently the be-all and the end-all of a large proportion of our school population, so to close the trap-door and to stop the exodus, to retain the Fifth Class in our Public Schools for another year and to send to the High Schools better equipped students, the Public School Leaving Examination was launched upon the already suffering teachers and their much demented pupils. However, the great majority of teachers hailed the introduction of this extra year's work, if not with demonstrations of joy, at least with feelings of pleasure. Teachers had for a long time felt that it was a much-to-be-deplored fact, that parents would allow their children to end their school days with the Entrance Examination, when a fair percentage of them would make, if not brilliant students, at least men and women who would make their influence felt in the realm of letters. But while we may applaud the action of the Minister in giving to us what has been so ardently desired, we may differ from him

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materially as to the manner pursued in carrying out his objects. And we, as Public School teachers, certainly feel that we have a real grievance in the arrangement of the curriculum and in the setting of the examination papers, which, if not redressed at a very early date, will cause the examination to die from sheer desertion. By the intervention of some persons whose exact place of residence has not yet been definitely discovered, this examination has been diverted from the primary objects it had in view, and instead of the Public School teachers doing one year's High School work, they have been compelled to do two and in some cases three years' High School work, while all the emoluments have gone to our High School masters. Our burdens are becoming more grievous to be borne. We are being compelled to make bricks without straw and we are naturally longing for a Moses to lead us, if not to the Promised Land, at least away from the thraldom of our High School task-masters. Taking the Public School Leaving Examination as it is, all will surely agree with me that the work is almost identical with that laid down for the Primary Examination. The absurdity of this arrangement will at once present itself when we recollect that the regulations state that those who pass the Public School Leaving Examination shall be eligible to enter the Second Form of a High School, so that, according to this, the High Schools are doing practically the same work in the Third Form that they are doing in the Second. We all are supposed to have our moments of weakness, but in some cases the malady seems to be more protracted than in others, and I think this a case calling for prompt and immediate attention. I believe it is impossible to secure good results as long as the examination is conducted as it has been. Whether the Association will agree with me or not, I hold that the standard for Teachers' examinations must be higher than for that of their pupils. We can hardly expect a Thirdclass teacher to properly prepare pupils for practically the same examination which he has just passed, to use a vulgar expression, "by the skin of his teeth." There are in the work difficulties constantly cropping up which he will be unable, from lack of experience and broader knowledge which he should have, to explain; difficulties which he may not have thought of while studying the work himself. It was probably this idea the Minister had in view when he proposed that the munificent grant of \$5 per pupil should be given to only certain schools, practically debarring rural schools from revelling in the wealth accrued as the result of having successful pupils. In apportioning this grant to certain schools, however, I must say the framers of the Act paid a very doubtful compliment to the utility of our Public School Inspectors, to

the honesty of Rural Teachers and to the amount of interest taken by parents in the welfare of their children. I think there is little danger that the conscientious rural teacher will wilfully neglect the younger pupils placed under his care. It does not take a very long time now-a-days for a parent to find out whether his children are receiving a reasonable share of the teacher's time and attention. If it should happen that he is devoting too much time to his advanced pupils, he may begin at once to see clouds darkening on the horizon of his little world. He may soon hear the faint rumble of the distant thunder, that tells of a storm which, unheeded, will sweep him off the deck of his frail craft. The prudent craftsman will do well, under these circumstances, to trim his sails to the breeze, leave the huge waves that threaten to engulf him, and playfully caress the little white-caps that curl in the quiet harbor of honest all-round toil. The plan of apportioning the grant as laid down in the Act was a serious blow to the usefulness of the examination, and it is good evidence that the authorities discovered their mistake when last year they paid the grant to all schools in which pupils had been successful.

You will now allow a short discussion of the curriculum which the Act states is tramed with the idea that it is a one year's course in the Public School after the Entrance Examination has been passed. The selections for Literature are the same as those prescribed for the Primary. We have eleven poems from the High School Reader, selected, we are led to believe, with the utmost care. We have "Horatius," "The Revenge," "Herve Riel," and "A Ballad to Queen Elizabeth," four selections of practically the same kind, the object of those making the selections being probably to have students thoroughly grounded in the old ballad style of poetry at least. One of the kind would be quite sufficient. It may be that my taste for beauty has never been sufficiently eduated, but I must confess that I have never been able to enthuse my pupils with a proper appreciation of the beauty possessed by that "Highland Girl" of Wordsworth's. It may be because the environments of Highland people have been too well understood by me. I myself was possessed of only "a few words of English speech" when I was eight years old, and I can assure you it was a bondage very unsweetly brooked by this Highland boy. Objection has also been made to others of the selections, and it has often been a matter of surprise that such a poem as "The Cotter's Saturday Night" has been persistently left off the list. If it is on account of the dialect I am sure it is just as easy to explain such expressions as "He wales a portion wi' judicious care," as "He may hope to out-

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thwack us." It is the opinion of many that it would be a great improvement to abolish half the poetical selections and substitute a short prose work by a good author. Perhaps the Arithmetic group is more faulty than any of the others. The limit is too long. We are asked to cover the same ground as pupils studying Junior Leaving work, except in a few minor items. Percentage involving the limit of time might be struck off, with the exception of simple and compound interest and bank discount. It has also been suggested that the introduction of two new subjects in Mathematics is too much for a year's work, and as Euclid is at this stage a valuable study for deductive teaching, Algebra might be left off. The kindest thing I can say about our text-book in Arithmetic is that it is absolutely valueless. True, the authorities some time ago made what they doubtless thought a valuable addition to it by introducing the supplement. Price, 10 cents. This supplement was designed to be sufficient for the Mensuration training of pupils preparing for the Public School Leaving Examination. In my school days we boys had a pernicious habit of attaching a streamer of paper or cloth to the coat-tail of any of our schoolmates who happened to be unusually "soft" or "ungainly," the object being to make him more ridiculous-looking still. This supplement, attached probably with the best intentions, is even more ridiculous than the old book itself. It may be adapted for students preparing for the Junior Leaving Examination, but it is absolutely useless for the purpose for which it was intended. Speaking of the Book-keeping and Drawing regulations, I cannot see why Public School Leaving candidates should be required to do more work than those writing for the Primary. If students writing for the latter take sufficient marks in these two subjects they receive their commercial certificates even if they should fail in all the other subjects, and they are not required to do any more in Book-keeping and Drawing when writing again for the Primary. Our pupils have to go over the work every year they write and the regulations state that the Book-keeping sets shall be different each year. I should imagine that it is placing too great a strain on the memory of examiners to make them remember what sets of Bookkeeping have been previously submitted to them for examination. As this work of Book-keeping and Drawing is purely mechanical and could easily be done by pupils who do not know the first principles of either subject, I would suggest that the regulations be changed so as to admit of the work of one year being sufficient in case of failure. In the case of the subject of Geography I know it is very hard to set a limit, but I think the ground examiners are allowed to travel over is much too

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great. While we cannot complain of the last Geography paper, still the papers of 1893 and 1894, when carefully compared, show how erratic examiners can be. In 1893 every question, with the exception of one, was taken from the Physical Geography contained in the first fifty pages of the High School Text-Book. In 1894 only one question was taken from that part of the book just mentioned. Then we have too much History. Everything between the two covers of the High School History is an enormous amount of work for pupils between the ages of fourteen and sixteen. When we consider the admirable facilities that History gives to the examiners who revel in the opportunities afforded them of obscuring the meaning of the questions they propound, the necessity of cutting down the work will readily present itself to the Association. It has been suggested that the Brunswick Period along with the Canadian History is sufficient, and this, if thoroughly taken up, will give far more satisfactory results. But however we may differ as to the limit of work laid down for this examination there is one aspect of the matter upon which we can all agree, and that is the character of the papers set for the examination. Everyone must admit that they have been too difficult. Most of them were beyond the reach of ordinary pupils who might be expected to write at that examination. I believe the examiners who are appointed to prepare the papers for this examination are asked to hand in their questions to a body of men called the Revising Committee, who have the power to mutilate the papers so that when they have completed their work only the most difficult and least appropriate questions remain on the list. Who are the members of this Committee ? Are they teachers who are supposed to know what is a proper test for promotion from the First Form to the Second Form in the High School? Evidently the bull in the china shop understood his business as well as these Revising Barristers. But perhaps we must not attach too much blame to them, as probably they are anxious to make some attempt to earn the money belonging to the office instituted for the purpose of giving them something to do. In 1894 the papers on Book-keeping, Euclid and Geography, were very reasonable. The History paper contained some excellent questions, but the first and last on the paper could not be answered by any pupil, no matter what age, from the material in our text-book. In composition there is only one suitable question, namely, number (c), and from the reading of the paper it is rather difficult to understand what the examiners required, whether it was to write a letter or write an essay on a letter-probably the latter. The Grammar paper is away beyond the reach of ordinary Public School

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scholars. The second part B. is clearly out of the limit, while C. is composed of exercises in False Syntax, in which the grammatical principle is so obscured that it would require men of mature minds to correct and give satisfactory reasons. In the Literature paper we have ample justification of the old remark that "language was given to man for the purpose of concealing his thoughts." Only the last question is suitable for pupils of such tender age as we are supposed to have. The questions are couched in language away beyond them. The Arithmetic paper is too long and too difficult and the Mensuration questions are clearly out of the limit. In Algebra the first three questions are fair, but taking into consideration the amount of work to be gone over in a year, 4, 5, 6 and 7, are altogether too difficult. When we remember that the limit extends only to simple equations, and see on four questions out of seven in equations not of the simplest kind, we can understand how hard it is for examiners to restrain themselves. Lastly, the subject of reading comes up, and the examiners are asked to propound questions to the candidate after he has read to determine whether he has read intelligently or not. If any questions are asked, we submit that they should be asked before the reading and not after it.

As I have stated before, the object of this examination was to save one year at the High School. Candidates who have passed this examination may enter the Second Form of the High School. Is there a High School teacher in Ontario who is willing to take the Public School Leaving papers as a test for promotion from his First Form to the Second Form ? Compared with the success of other teachers, I have no reason to complain of my success at the examination of 1894. Of my successful candidates only two are attending High School. Both of these were placed in the Third Form. Both will write at the Primary Examination in 1895. One of them has, until Easter, been taking extra work, not required for her examination, along with her regular work. On the other hand, I could point out pupils who have left the Public School four years ago, who have ever since been attending High School, but who have not yet passed any examination. 1 believe there are scores of Public School teachers in Ontario whose experience has been the same. In this examination the examiners have pre-supposed a maturity of mental development incompatible with the age of the average pupil. The Public School teachers have a real grievance, and I contend that it is the duty of the Department to pass a remedial order. Rightly or wrongly, the efficiency of the teacher is judged by the proportion of pupils he passes at a given examination, and although we are far from holding that the best

results of teaching can be set down in per cents., yet much has to be conceded to this materialistic age which demands tangible things. We are anxious to have the Fifth Class retained in our Public Schools, but we are anxious at the same time to have a chance to do good work, therefore I take this opportunity of moving the following resolution, which I hope to see adopted by this Association :—

Resolved, (1) That the Public School Leaving Examination has, since its introduction, caused general dissatisfaction, from the fact that the curriculum covers too much ground to be gone over thoroughly in one year, and that the papers set for the examination have been too difficult.

(2) That the curriculum be revised so that the work can be covered in one year.

(3) That any honors for Fifth Class work be participated in by all schools in which Fifth Class work is successfully performed.

(4) That in the matter of Legislative Grants, the Public Schools be more liberally dealt with, and that the proportion of \$8 or \$9 to \$1 per pupil in favor of High Schools is too great. If I w future of you wou needed n saying is

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J. HAROLD PUTMAN, OTTAWA.

If I were to start with such a commonplace assertion as that the future of Canada depends to a large extent upon her country schools, you would almost feel that I was taking a very bald text and one that needed no proof and yet is it not true that sometimes the force of a saying is lost upon us by reason of its very simplicity ?

Is the general trend of educational development and improvement in a line that would show to even a careful observer that our hope for the future is, to any considerable extent, the rural school? Is it not true that our boasted strides during the past decade have been taken in higher education and that any improvements the rural schools have made have been doubtful and incidental rather than definite and carefully planned?

Let us notice the Public School Leaving Examination, the institution of which marks the most important change made for some time, relating to rural schools. Has this examination realized what was expected of it? What ought reasonably to have been expected of it? During the past three years the number of Public School Leaving certificates granted has not averaged twenty-five per county. Is this a satisfactory showing? Remember this is an examination planned solely for the benefit of rural schools. This was intended to be the goal for which the ninety and five per cent. who never attend a High School should climb.

Where lies the difficulty? Is the examination too hard? Have teachers of rural schools too little time to undertake so much work? Do the High Schools attract all the senior pupils as soon as they are ready for Fifth Form work? I have heard all of these reasons given by teachers trying to account for the difficulty. I must confess that none of them nor all of them seem to me satisfactory. No one will deny that the standard of the examination papers has been high, but let us remember this is a Public School *Leaving* Examination. It is to represent the discipline and culture the boys and girls of rural schools in Ontario receive during their whole school course. Dare any teacher say that our schools about which we boast so much ought not to cover such a course and cover it well?

Are teachers of rural schools too busy to do this work? Did you ever hear of a teacher who was too busy to do something that he liked

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to do and wanted to do, and felt that he ought to do, and that he knew how to do? Now I do not mean to insinuate that teachers of rural schools are not busy and in many cases overworked. I simply wish to point out that lack of time has never prevented teachers from undertaking any labors they felt to be in their sphere.

Do the bright pupils who are sufficiently advanced leave for the High Schools? No doubt that many rural schools adjacent to High Schools do suffer in this way, but the mass of the pupils, even the bright and advanced ones, do not go to High Schools although they leave the Public Schools.

The latest official returns show that sixty-one per cent. of Ontario teachers have third class certificates. The cities and towns employ almost exclusively second and first class teachers. It follows then that the percentage of third class teachers in rural schools must be much above sixty-one per cent. This I believe to be the true explanation of the comparative failure of the Public School Leaving Examination. Third class teachers cannot successfully teach the work. It requires a scholarship and a culture they do not possess. They act the part of wisdom in leaving the work severely alone. Imagine a teacher who squeezed through the Primary Examination with thirty-three and onethird per cent. in Arithmetic, trying to teach that subject for Public School Leaving, or one who took the same per cent. in English Literature, trying to prepare a pupil for an examination he could not pass himself !

I consider this question of third class certificates a burning one and one deeply affecting the rural schools. A settlement of it must come soon. It may not be wise to make a radical change, but when the change comes it must be a policy that will gradually but surely drive the teacher of minimum qualifications out of the profession.

At present the rural districts where the educational status is low and where the people generally are narrow and uncultured, are just the places where you find the poor teacher, while the progressive and intelligent rural districts are certain to provide for their children a welleducated and skilful teacher. In short, the people who for themselves and their children most need the quickening influence of a good school are just the ones who never secure it. Is this to go on and on? Because one-half or more of the rural sections of Ontario are willing to have any kind of teacher if he will only work for low wages, are they always to be allowed to do so?

It is our boast that no people on the face of the earth has developed a wider measure of local self-government than we in Ontario, but a careful as it rela able resu We al

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careful observer cannot fail to note that this self-government, in so far as it relates to many rural school boards, is a power used with questionable results.

We all know that the farmers of Ontario do not feel very prosperous just now, and, many of them, find the closest economy necessary, but surely the cheap teacher is anything but economy. He is rather an expensive luxury. He must be paid something and often makes a very slight return. He is toying with the precious moments of the children under his care and the pittance his employers have wasted on his salary is but a fraction of their real loss.

The most stringent regulations as to the licensing of teachers will not provide anything like an absolute guarantee that the teachers are capable. The almost unanimous voice of those who are in a position to know says that the weakness in rural schools at the present time is poor scholarship and this is a point that can be securely guarded against by the proper authorities. In many respects our knowledge of methods of teaching has advanced faster than our knowledge of the subject to be taught.

Let us not, however, underestimate the difficulties that await the Department of Education in any attempt at raising the present standard. Any change made must be defended on the floor of the Legislature. The Legislature is largely composed of rural members, representing the very districts where any change tending to shut out low grade teachers and raise salaries would be most quickly felt.

The solving of the low grade teacher problem is one that will require the sympathetic co-operation of every person and every institution engaged in education. The county inspectors and members of county boards should not hesitate to cut of young teachers whose failure is almost certain. The examiners for Normal Schools should make certain that the holding of a Normal School certificate is a guarantee of something more than a term's attendance, and a reasonable assurance to the board employing that teacher, that they will secure something better than a recruit from the county Model School. Above all, the teachers throughout the country who hold Normal certificates should fully recognize the responsibility resting on them. If every graduate of a Normal School were to do his best to live up to the ideals given him during his professional training, it would not be long before even rural school boards would see the advantages of employing a skilled teacher.

Now I did not write this paper to wage a crusade against third class certificates, nor to discuss the Public School Leaving Examination,

although both of these subjects are closely connected with rural schools.

Although the rural schools are supposed to have many inherent drawbacks, and in too many cases are supplied with low grade teachers, I still believe that as a whole they give a better education than the city schools and I am quite persuaded that the best of them are the best schools we have; not because they have better teachers, neither because their teachers work harder, but because of their environments.

The ideal Public School is a country school; it always will be. The ideal life is a country life, and let us sincerely hope that this, too, may always be. Let us be thankful that as yet the mass of Canadians enjoy rural homes and natural surroundings. As teachers let us do all in our power to check the uneasy, restless spirit that has seemed of late years to possess the young people of America, and drive so many of them to towns and cities. Let the teacher, whether in the city or country, take every opportunity to impress on his pupils the dignity of honest toil, whether of the hand or head, and let him in particular lead them to place a high estimate upon the independence, the freedom, and the importance, of a successful farmer.

Just here the well-educated teacher of a rural school has a wonderful power, and a certain advantage over a city teacher. Every teacher must influence his pupils according to his own power and strength of character, but the rural teacher has an additional power from the fact that the country child's intercourse with educated minds is limited. The country teacher who wins the confidence and respect of his pupils is to them the embodiment of all wisdom and every virtue. How very necessary that the teacher who is thus consciously or unconsciously influencing so many young lives should possess not only every moral and social virtue, but also that he should have that knowledge and culture which will enable him to give them broad and comprehensive ideas of mankind and his various relations and duties.

The country school generally has healthful, cheerful and invigorating surroundings; or, at least, the right sort of teacher can do a great deal toward making them so. The city teacher strives to bring Nature into the school room in the shape of plants, specimens and shells of all kinds. The country teacher may not only have them inside, but must come in contact with them outside. The country child sees Nature at home.

To what extent our after thoughts and lives are influenced by the scenes of early childhood, is a question difficult to determine, but we may safely say that their power is no unimportant one, and all the stronger very imp such surn many ad

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stronger from the subtle unconscious manner in which it acts. How very important then that a child's early years should be spent amid such surroundings as will be an incentive to a life of virtue, and how many advantages, in this respect, the country has over the city !

Then, too, what an inexhaustible mine the surroundings of the country school offer for lessons in natural history, botany, and every study bearing on plant and animal life! Granted, a skilful, Nature-loving teacher and the pupil must be dull indeed who cannot be led to interest himself in the study of his surroundings.

Not only are the pupil's surroundings during school hours of a very desirable kind, but the chances are that his home surroundings are more conducive to the formation of good habits than are those of a city child. The majority of rural school pupils come from homes of competency rather than of wealth, and this alone is no mean advantage. I suppose it is according to that great law of compensation that even riches have their disadvantages. Certain it is that many a boy's ambition is dwarfed, and his incentive for work lacking, simply because his father has plenty of money, and the boy feels that his material wants are sure of being satisfied. A philosophic consideration of this may reveal the fact that the error arises from the abuse of money, but the fact remains, and I fear will remain, so long as human nature is as it is.

Pupils who live in the country often have work for their spare moments, sometimes they lament their lot, and sigh for the free and easy life of their cousins in town, but the teacher and wise parent, while wishing none to live a life of drudgery, and desiring all to have a sufficient time for relaxation and healthy sports, will offer thanks for the little chores that keep a restless boy out of mischief, and at the same time train him in habits of industry. Have you not found again and again that some of your brightest and hardest working pupils are the ones who have much to do at home, while the idle in school are almost certain to be idle out of school? A boy who has earned a dollar by the sweat of his brow begins to realize that time is money, and is less likely to fritter away his time in school than the one who estimates the value of a dollar only by the amount of pleasure it will secure him.

Perhaps there is no subject connected with education that is at present occupying a larger share of attention from the public, and close thought from educators, than that of manual training in Public Schools. Its friends claim that it is the long-sought for panacea that will restore harmony between the growth of the physical and intellectual natures. They claim, and rightly too, that the training of the

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hand will at the same time train the eye, and aid greatly in Drawing, Arithmetic, and kindred studies.

I believe, however, the main reasons for advocating manual training have arisen from the conviction on the part of educators that young people should have something useful to do; that during the period from nine or ten to fourteen years of age, boys and girls are all the better for being initiated into the secrets of the bread and butter business, and that boys, especially, who have nothing to do outside of their studies are likely to become somewhat listless, and pass through a period varying from one to three years, when they are in a kind of comatose, stand-still, won't-be-interested-in-anything condition. Rejoice ye teachers of rural schools ! For you the manual training problem has solved itself. The hundred-acre farm demands some service from even your youngest pupil.

Advocates of manual training will tell us that the clay-modelling, sawing and cutting, teach accuracy and develop a keen perception of form, but the farmyard and kitchen require services that have their peculiar educational advantages, and it yet remains to be proved that the moulding of an old-fashioned doughnut will not have as much educational value for a girl as moulding one out of clay or putty, or that the country boy may not train his eye as much in making straight paths and beds in the garden as the city boy in trying to saw a board at right angles.

Much stress is usually laid on the power of manual training to develop originality. It is, however, extremely unlikely that even twentieth century progress will see rural schools enjoying any of the advantages of this system, and I think we may safely say that in so far as manual training is an aid to originality the rural schools are less in need of it than any others. The pupil of the rural school is already surrounded by many influences that tend to originality. He is much left to himself, and must solve his problems and conquer his difficulties by original methods. He is generally unable to get the same amount of help at home as city boys and must investigate and think for himself. He spends much time apart from his playmates, and this in itself helps to make him original in his manner. Last, but not least, the teaching he gets is likely to have a certain freshness and originality in manner. True, in too many rural schools the only positive quality the teaching has is originality; but I am speaking of the best rural schools, and every teacher present who has taught in a rural school will understand what I mean by original methods.

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carefully prepare every lesson and every illustration to be used. He has prepared a general outline and knows what he intends to teach, but for minute illustrations and exact questions he must be guided by the course the lesson takes and the difficulties he encounters in presenting it. When he meets a difficulty he seizes upon an illustration that is generally successful, yet is such a one as he would have hesitated to use had he been presenting a lesson before critics.

Intimately connected with the subject of originality is that of independence, and every influence bearing on the former affects the latter.

Perhaps in no single point has the rural school such an advantage over every other as in its formation of habits of independence. What the country teacher usually regards as his greatest drawback is lack of time to teach enough, but when we come to consider the causes that promote independence in pupils this drawback is seen to have its peculiar advantage. Country teachers do not teach too much; many city teachers do. The country teacher has no opportunity to spoon feed; the city teacher has, and I am afraid that some of them can't resist the temptation to do it.

While every true teacher fully recognizes the importance of presenting well-planned lessons arranged in logical order, there is a vast difference between these and many of the methods advanced by some modern writers on education. Every difficulty is removed. Every little hill is cut down. The pupil must meet no difficulty that will even slightly embarrass him. His only part is to open his mouth for the sugar-coated pill so carefully prepared. Often the roundabout journey he is taken to avoid one little jolt quite puts him to sleep. A noted writer on methods in Mathematics who belongs to one of the most famous Normal Schools in the United States will use a page of explanations involving at least a dozen steps to reach a conclusion that any ordinary boy would understand much better if the explanations were reduced by three-quarters.

Every possible care should be taken to make the surroundings of pupils pleasant and every means used to interest them in work, but the teacher who has not yet taught his pupils to work diligently at certain periods without his aid, has yet to learn at least one important educational principle. Again and again have I heard teachers in High Schools say they could tell the boy from the country by his stickingpower and his ability to help himself. He has become so used to independent work that he is not lost as soon as the teacher leaves him.

Why is it that country teachers never grow old? I suppose it must be because they have so much work there is no time left to think of

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their troubles. Certain it is that they are not so likely to become narrow and machine-like as the teacher in a lower division of a graded school. The country teacher, with all grades to teach, must read very widely if the work is to be well done. Not only does his work demand wide reading but it makes heavy calls upon his sympathies with child life. He deals with every age of child and every stage of development. He lives his childhood over every day and keeps in constant touch with child-nature.

It is often said that teaching is a narrowing occupation, and judging from the effect it has on many who call themselves teachers, the saying seems to be true. We all know teachers who have gone on year after year, doing the same things in the same room in the same way, until their mental horizon is bounded by the walls of their school-room, and they even come to believe that schools and children were made for their especial benefit. The spectacle is not a pleasant one. Must we accept it as an inseparable disadvantage inherent in our profession? I think not, and surely the rural teacher who receives daily inspiration from the book of Nature and has his sympathies broadened by contact with young and old, should be the last one to furnish an illustration of this narrowing process.

In an ungraded school every class may hear the lessons taught to every other class. Is this an advantage or a disadvantage? Some may say a disadvantage since it tends to distract the attention of those doing seat work. I am quite certain, though, that the advantages are more than the disadvantages. The seniors are benefited from the lessons given the juniors and many points that were not clear to them two or three years ago are now fully understood. The juniors are stimulated to greater effort and look forward with pleasure to the time when they will be able to do the work done by seniors. Then in Geography, History and Literature, the subject matter is such that any class is benefited from the lessons given to any other class. I remember a boy, seven years of age, who, after spending his first month at school, could repeat for his mother the whole of Byron's "Ocean." He learned it from hearing Fourth Book pupils recite it in class. Could he have been better employed ?

One of the most appreciated compliments I ever received was paid me quite innocently by a little girl in the Fifth Class while I was teaching a Literature lesson to a Fourth Class. She was supposed to be working Algebra, but I noticed that she was not and spoke to her. She said it was no use, she had tried very hard but that she could not work at anything when I taught a Literature lesson. It is mu both old an aid the tea the discipli *esprit de co* mediate gra The countr work with cases hesita know the a whom are a

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It is much easier to maintain discipline in a room where there are both old and young pupils than where all are young. The older pupils aid the teacher and act as a check on the younger ones. Not only is the discipline easier but it is comparatively easy to work up a healthy *esprit de corps* among the pupils. To do this in a primary or intermediate grade is often very difficult and sometimes almost impossible. The country teachers who are in the habit of contrasting their heavy work with that of a teacher who has but one grade, would in many cases hesitate before changing places with that same teacher could they know the additional nervous strain on the teacher of fifty pupils, all of whom are at an uneasy fidgety age.

In many large graded schools the pupil spends six months or less and scarcely ever more than twelve months under one teacher. Many country schools change teachers too often, but on the whole the length of time a child spends under one teacher is much longer in the rural than in the urban school. I consider this a point largely in favor of the rural school. The closely-graded school gives the teacher very little opportunity to impress his individuality on the pupil. He is just getting acquainted with him and learning the best way to manage him, when he leaves.

In so far as the highly-graded system prevents a pupil from receiving lasting impressions from the personality of a strong teacher, it acts much the same throughout the pupil's whole school course, but in so far as it wastes the teacher's time in studying the nature of a child who leaves almost immediately, the system is peculiarly weak for primary grades. Many little ones are so sensitive to the change of room and change of teacher that for weeks they do scarcely anything.

During the past year there has appeared in the public press and in school journals many references to the prevalency of machine-like work, and the want of individual teaching in graded schools, particularly in large cities. In some cases those referring to the subject have been quicker to point out the evil than to locate its cause. What is more natural than machine-like children when the teacher is forced to become a sort of machine, and direct the lessons of forty to sixty children, or even more.

According to the latest statistics for rural schools, I find that the actual average attendance of pupils per teacher varies from seventeen to thirty-four in different counties, with an average of about twentysix per teacher for the whole Province. When we remember that the average of twenty-six is divided into at least four classes, we can readily understand that the country teacher has great opportunity for

individual instruction. The natural result of this, is a class of pupils whose individuality has not been crushed. Here I believe we have an explanation of one of the most marked advantages of rural schools. Hundreds, or even thousands of adults, may catch the breath of inspiration from the lecture of some learned man, but that fifty or sixty boys, whose voluntary powers of attention are necessarily limited, can be thoroughly taught in one class, by one teacher, is a human impossibility. We shall see the city schools of the future, particularly the primary and intermediate grades, supplied with nearly double the present number of teachers.

I have called your attention to some of the features of rural schools that, to my mind, give them an advantage over city schools. I am not so vain as to believe that all will agree with me, nor that I have always been able to free myself from prejudice.

Every true picture must show shadow as well as light, but the disadvantages of rural schools are difficult to discuss, owing to the lack of uniformity in their surgoundings. In some, the buildings and equipments are good, in others just the reverse of good.

I have already referred to the evil that rural schools, as a class, suffer through poor teachers. Perhaps, in order of importance, the next great hindrance to the efficiency of these schools is irregularity. While the maximum per cent. of registered attendance in cities is seventy-five, in counties it is fifty-eight, with an average under fifty, and some counties falling as low as thirty-nine. This must mean that the education of a great many boys and girls is of a very scrappy, patchwork nature.

Those who attend irregularly may be divided into two classes: first, those who come only in winter; second, those who are habitually irregular and spread their irregularity over the whole year.

The first class is easily dealt with. The teacher knows when to expect them, and can make special arrangements for their studies. Some teachers, by a skilful planning of a course of study for such pupils get them to start during a certain week and hold them as long as possible in the spring. A teacher who never taught a rural school would be likely to look upon this system as one likely to demoralize all classification, but owing to the elastic nature of the grading of a rural school, these winter pupils cause very little trouble.

The second class of irregular pupils is the really troublesome one, whether in country or city. The city has an apparent advantage in having a truant officer. The best truant officer, however, is an earnest teacher. This is particularly true of the country school. Did you ever call on a parent to ask about a boy's absence when you did not find the b the latest. week.

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me one, tage in earnest did you did not find the boy was coming to school to-morrow or Monday morning at the latest. But for your call the boy might have been away another week.

Many rural teachers think they are badly handicapped by lack of apparatus and modern school appliances, commonly found in city schools. Many of the advantages of improved apparatus are more imaginary than real. If you have plenty of good blackboards, a good globe, a standard dictionary and gazetteer and good wall maps, you are equipped. The teacher and not the appliances makes the school. Some schools are so well supplied with machinery that the teachers sometimes come to feel that they are only a part, and a cynical observer might say a very nnimportant part of the great machine. This cannot be too strongly emphasized. We want teachers not appliances, the living voice not the book, the magnetic influence of a great soul not a patent desk that will fold up when you look at it; a sympathy deep enough to fathom the perplexities of that backward boy not a complicated geographical chart that works automatically. Do not let me be misunderstood. I do not wish to belittle illustration. In fact, I think the teacher must illustrate everything possible. But, as a rule, so far as Public Schools are concerned, the illustrations must be a part of the teacher and grow under his hand to be effective. It may be ever so rude, and yet have more value than some costly ready-made affair. A map, drawn by teacher and pupils on the blackboard, is much better to teach a first lesson from than the accurately-constructed one made by the surveyor and draughtsman. A teacher should welcome any help he can get, and a wise teacher may often use, with profit to his pupils, apparatus that is, strictly speaking, unnecessary. The point I wish to emphasize is, that any apparatus, methods or devices for teaching that tend to minimize the teacher are bad. Better a hundred times over, that a boy should receive his training from a great teacher in the old-time log-school with rude benches and scanty furnishings than to receive it from a teacher who is only one wheel in a great machine, even though that machine be a modern Public School fitted up without regard to cost.

A much more serious difficulty in rural schools is the lack of a suitable supply of books and magazines both in school and in the homes of the children. Pupils in towns and cities generally have access to libraries and reading-rooms in addition to a more liberal supply of books and papers at home.

Books are the avenues to knowledge and culture, and if a boy passes through the Public School without a habit and taste for reading good

books he seldom acquires that taste in after life. I know of no way in which the teachers of many rural schools could do so much for their pupils and indirectly for the whole people among whom they are placed as by studying out some plan to provide their school with a library.

The School Act of Ontario leaves the question of libraries entirely in the hands of the Trustees. If rural school boards were compelled by law to grant a small sum annually, even ten dollars, to a library fund it would be a great benefit.

Books are so cheap it would seem that every boy and girl in our land ought to have access to the standard authors, and yet how few there are who have! In every section throughout Ontario there are homes without books, and in very few sections are there more than three or four homes that are even fairly supplied. Sometimes the young people have to depend entirely upon the weekly newspapers and the Sunday School library. The former is generally good so far as it goes; the latter often consists of a few, good books with a literary style beyond the grasp of the young folks and a mass of goody-goody stories and other fiction of questionable benefit.

A determined teacher can do something to get a supply of good literature. Have an entertainment. Get the young people of the neighborhood to help you. If you can raise no more than six or eight dollars it will get Harper's or some other good magazine for the elder pupils and a suitable one for the little folks. Once you get the pupils interested there will be no more trouble. Some way will open up to continue the supply. Once a boy or girl is really interested in reading the labor of the teacher is comparatively easy.

I am afraid that we as teachers often overlook this point. We wish to impart so many facts and give so much knowledge. But if our pupils leave school without a desire to read and gain more knowledge, we have done but little for them. Much better that a boy should leave school full of curiosity and eager to learn more about himself and the world in which he lives than to have accumulated a mass of facts at the expense of a deadened sensibility and a worn-out interest.

Now, although I have by no means shown you either all the cloud or all the sunshine that surrounds a rural school, I feel that it is quite time to draw this paper to a close. As I said when I set out, I believe the best schools in Ontario are to be found in the progressive rural districts. That these progressive schools bear such an insignificant ratio to the whole number of schools is the one unpleasant feature in the situation. That the general tone of the country schools can be materially i of teachers which these

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COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

materially improved is not to be expected while they are in the hands of teachers whose general knowledge and culture is not above that which these schools should provide for their pupils.

Let it be the noble ambition of every teacher of Ontario to do something to better our national schools: I say national schools because after all the rural Public Schools are the schools of the mass of Canadians. Let us set about this work in no narrow, selfish manner; let us give outsiders no ground to complain that by unreasonable age limits or other unjust restrictions we are trying to make the teaching profession an exclusive one. Let us take higher ground and by common-sense arguments, in season and out of season, and, above all, by our own work in the school-room, let us show that the well-educated and well-trained teacher is the only one that the people of any country can afford to employ.

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CONSERVATISM IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION— AN ABSTRACT.

E. T. YOUNG, GUELPH.

Subject could be discussed (a) Historically; (b) Philosophically. Neither would yield practical results, therefore have chosen a nondescript method.

A few platitudes :—1. Mankind is conservative. No demonstration needed. So teaching profession is conservative in spirit. 2. Conservatism is the sheet anchor of human organizations. Gives stability to those organizations.

Illustration:—The mental attitude should be that of a castaway sailor on a frail raft. Clings tenaciously. Scans the horizon. Judges; acts.

Conservatism of stupid obnoxious type has disappeared—the press; conventions; spirit of the age. Wish to discuss at length. Conservatism due to "bias."

This is a universal trait, possessed in a greater or less degree by each. The two chief factors := 1. Early environment. 2. Predilection.

Is an undesirable psychological state not necessarily remedied by education. Education may deepen and not broaden.

Illustration :— A profound scholar may be very narrow-minded along certain lines.

So conservatism of a pronounced type among the highly educated.

Historically illustrated :---1. Science versus Classics. 2. Co-education. 3. The recent changes in the Matriculation Examinations.

Have thus shown that conservatism due to "bias" exists among the educated. Effect of conservatism upon Public Schools.

State of curriculum :—Extended during the last twenty years so as to now embrace twelve subjects for examination.

Educationally faulty :---1. Too many subjects. 2. Too wide a range. So many subjects that cramming has to be resorted to.

Experience shows too wide a range. Quantity. Quality. Some of the work is beyond the comprehension of the pupils. This tends to ruin bright pupils. Ruins in proportion to the brightness.

Analysis and Parsing :- Pupils are required to discriminate the niceties of language before judgment is sufficiently developed. Bright intellects must assimilate-refuse to absorb; consequently difficulties cause worry, vexation and abhorrence.

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CONSERVATISM IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION.

The curriculum has become entrenched and is defended by a host marshalled under a banner having inscribed upon its folds "Conservatism of Predilection."

Example—History.

The same trouble should any other subject be attached.

Should suppose curriculum is modified upon advice of some influential body, College men, Public School Inspectors, W. C. T. U., certainly not Public School Section of the O. E. A.

Obtained from wrong source.

College men understand psychical law, intrinsic value of a subject, and possibly the relative value, but do not understand the difficulties of the Public School room. Inspectors in a better position. Having limited means, have like knowledge.

Teachers who have come to see obstacles in way of real educational work, willing to see curtailment.

Struggle to surmount led to study the relative value of subject and thus to overcome conservatism of predilection.

Present curriculum has been put together piecemeal. Intrinsic values alone have been considered, consequently we have a weak and cumbersome curriculum.

As previously stated, present curriculum is intrenched in the mind of the Minister and defended by a motley host. But better prospects ahead.

"Coming events cast their shadows before."

Impending changes of a radical nature.

Some signs of the times: 1. Dissatisfaction because of the subsidiary position of the Public Schools. 2. Dissatisfaction because of the limited scope.

The first has been discussed here and in the press. The second has been widely dealt with: (a) The leader of the Opposition; (b) The leader of the Patrons; (c) The Trustee Section of this Association. The Trustees' requests have been partly granted.

Quota from Trustees' section.

These may seem passing desires, trifles, the little incidents that go to make up the whole of human affairs. They seem to me the evidence of a rebellion against the existing order of things educational.

Where shall this Section of the O. E. A. be found in this crisis? As in the past, hammering at dissatisfying regulations and unfortunate examiners? Not a true position; too low. It should wield influence commensurate with the importance of work and size of constituency. We do not yet possess this influence. Every other department has

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more than we. This is due to the policy of this department. It has not been sufficiently enterprising and aggressive.

As above said, great changes are imminent—an extension and re-modelling of curriculum. If not heard in time, shall have no influence in this matter. Advice will be sought from present advisers. My proposed plan: By a committee, say the Board of Directors. The Minister's solution of the difficulty, if his graciousness became perennial: By submitting proposed regulations and giving weight to section most affected.

We accomplish little because we are never consulted—have therefore only a retrospective view instead of prospective.

Bear clearly in mind, that there is conservatism of an improper kind; that it effects the Public School curriculum, principally because relative value of subjects have not been considered.

The Public School Section has little influence in moulding curriculum. Our view has been retrospective, not prospective. The Public School Section should be heard when changes are proposed. Last su an ideal C on the cor that I eve work in t Blow, held It was i

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MISS MARY MACINTYRE, TORONTO.

Last summer I was fortunate enough to attend what seemed to me an ideal Convention. It could hardly be called a Convention, it seemed on the contrary to be an informal social gathering, but no gathering that I ever attended, formal or informal, ever accomplished so much work in two weeks as we did. I refer to the Conference with Miss Blow, held at Cazenovia last August.

It was ideal in its systematic work, its intense life, its charitable breadth and its unity.

In any organization the life of the whole permeates every part and vivifies each member. This was particularly noticeable in this case; Miss Blow seemed the life of the whole Conference, her wonderful insight and deep sympathy drew everyone to her and seemed to fill all with the spirit of unity and zeal. To me it was inspiration, it gave me new life and food for much study, so that I thought that at this meeting I would like to speak of some of the questions that were studied while we were there, that we might think over them and bring up points for discussion any time during the Session. An hour spent in the discussion of questions of interest should be most valuable and I hope our question drawer will be full.

One of the very practical lectures that Miss Blow gave was on the Programme. Miss Blow holds that we should make the Mother Play the basis for our programme and therefore of all our work.

The idea was emphasized that while each Kindergartener must suit her songs and individual work to her own Kindergarten, according to her special conditions, yet all might unite in one progressive spiritual ideal.

The "Thought" at the beginning of the year was taken from the two opening songs of the Mother Play, the development of activity and the awakening of the sympathies.

So the songs and games taken during the first two months must be very simple, developing the conscious use of the senses, arousing an interest in the material and arousing the sympathy with and interest in the activity of nature. Little games that will cultivate a bond of

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unity between the children, games that will teach them to know each other and to become friends with the teachers and familiar with their surroundings.

Also during these months the bond between the Kindergarten and the home might be cemented by some simple family songs.

The aspect of Nature's life at this season, brought in by actual experience, will provide the thought of fall, and the "Mowing Grass" and "The Baker," will lead into the thought of Thanksgiving.

Gratitude, the principle underlying Froebel's "Flower Basket," will lead directly to Christmas. "If every one is helping me, may I not do something?" should be the spirit that animates the Christmas giving. The culmination is the thought of God's greatest gift to man.

From the "Star of Bethlehem," Miss Blow led in January to the "Child and the Stars," "The Boy and the Moon," because at that time of the year children are more apt to see the moon and stars, the idea was simply to arouse interest in and sympathy with the heavenly bodies.

In the early winter is also a good time to introduce some trade songs; then Miss Blow led to the thought of heroism in connection with Washington's birthday, and from that to the game of the Knights, bringing the idea of the hero as he who is brave and true, kind, gentle and loving. From this we led to another trade song, to illustrate that he who does his daily duty to the best of his ability is a true hero.

In the interest in the stars and moon, you have a basis for the light songs, and they form a true basis for your spring work, the awakening of life and the thought of Easter.

"I am the Resurrection and the Life." "in Him was Life and the Life was the Light of Man."

Another very interesting discussion to me that was in connection with the detail of a programme was a color scheme that was submitted to the Conference for discussion by Miss Fisher, of Boston. This scheme is carried out in Boston, Chicago and Pratt Institute, Brooklyn. Miss Fisher consulted both artists and scientists in color as our work should be founded on the two.

The idea was to have a regular sequence of development in all color work and in order to insure clear perceptions of color a neutral background was to be preserved. In Chicago, they go so far as to have all their tables covered with a grey cardboard when they are doing any colored work.

With regard to the working out of the scheme in occupations, we should follow a sequence, our mats should all be a light, dark or

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ons, we lark or neutral grey, the strips should first follow the standard colors of the spectrum, then a grey mat with a standard red and a tint or shade selected by the child, later harmonious blendings of tints and shades of different standards. In the other occupations we should follow the sequence of the spectrum until the child has had the standard colors.

Now, with regard to the decoration of our rooms, the color charts should be as artistic as the child's own efforts can make them, and all charts should be temporary only, for the reason that with long familiarity, we cease to observe. If a new chart is hung for a while, then taken down and placed on a file to which the child can get access, the child will appreciate them more, and they can be rehung as the children renew their experiences.

The permanent decorations of a room should consist of copies of the best pictures that you can procure, for instance, the family life can be represented by a copy of a famous Madonna, you can get a good print for fifty or seventy-five cents.

A print of Guido's Aurora will represent your light songs. These with some pictures of animals and a good trade picture would carry you through the year. You all know that Appleton expects to furnish a complete series of these Mother Play pictures, and these will be very valuable to us.

One fruitful source of discussion ably led by Miss E. Harrison was on "Stories." What is their function in the Kindergarten? What classes of stories should fulfil the aim?

It has seemed to me that to a great extent there has been a sad lack in our stories. They have not been formative enough; we have multitudes of pretty nature stories, numbers of sweet little stories relating incidents of child life, but a large proportion of the stories that are written lack force.

Our stories should be such as will awaken a conscious ideal in the child's mind. They should deal symbolically with the problems which show the strength in a child's nature. They should lead the child to conscious effort to reach the ideal. I am not speaking against the nature stories. They are necessary, but they should not take the place of all stories. Miss Elizabeth Harrison told us some of the most beautiful stories I ever heard—fairy stories that embodied a real truth of life prominently enough brought forward that the child must feel it. Her book is soon to be published and I look forward to it with keen pleasure.

One theory I noted especially in these stories was the introduction of the negative side of life, just in so far as would strengthen the posi-

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tive side by showing the contrast. Froebel himself makes use of it in the song of the Knights; he brings it in that the child may see the contrast and turn to the good more decidedly. It should be used simply as a means. Stories of bad boys and girls, where the evil side is brought into prominence, should not be told, but rather stories in which we see the struggle to reach an ideal, the conquest of good over evil.

There is one more point I should like to speak of-our games.

We had many animated discussions as to these, as we had disciples from two distant schools. One school where they had developed dramatization to a very great extent, and the other which had kept to simple symbolic expression.

We had free kindly criticism from both sides.

On one side the gestures were strictly according to Delsarte, on the other the child made the gesture as his natural expression. The Delsarte gestures were criticized as not being true to life and as being impossible for the child to give naturally, he must imitate them from the teacher; therefore he is not a bird when he is flying, he is trying to do it as the Kindergartner shows.

I think the true rule that should guide us in our games is to be what you represent. Enter into the life you depict and gesture will take care of itself. If you are playing mother bird, fill your heart with that mother's love; let it show itself in the way you play it and you will have the true spirit.

These are a few of the points that I thought would be of the most practical benefit, and I give them to you simply as subjects for discussion. I bega classes, v during th dren of fi the Kind and requi case in O week ; so I had an beforehan We had

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TRANSITION CLASS WORK.

TRANSITION CLASS WORK-AN ABSTRACT. MISS C. G. O'GRADY, MONTREAL.

I began work with about forty-eight children; really forming two classes, viz., children of seven and eight years old, who had entered during the previous year, or had had some private teaching; and children of five, six and seven years' old, newly come from home or from the Kindergarten. The limit table for the two classes was the same, and required rather more of ordinary primary work than would be the case in Ontario; and the hours were from 9 till 12, six days in the week; so not much time could be given to gift and occupation work. I had an assistant teacher, but she knew nothing of the Kindergarten beforehand.

We had clay, folding and drawing or tablets for about three hours in the week. Once in two weeks we used the Kindergarten sandtable, and generally had building in connection with it; and once a month had free parquetry, to give an opportunity for expression of color-lessons. We also used Hailmann beads, peg tiles, sticks and Fifth Gift for our number-lessons. The two first were invaluable, especially with the younger children. With so short a time to devote to manual work, it was not possible to accomplish great results. Where a large number have to be overseen by one person, it is necessary to have simple, definite lessons, and such as enable the children to keep pretty well together; and one must be satisfied with very gradual progress. It might be supposed that children of "primary" age should easily accomplish more and better work than children in the Kindergarten; but if they have had only a little Kindergarten training, or none at all, their fingers seem more awkward, their eyes less observant, at seven or eight years old, than when younger; and having more vanity and self-consciousness, perceptions clearer, but powers no greater, they are more apt to be discouraged over their work. Much patience therefore is required, but when they begin to improve they delight in the work.

I shall not refer particularly to the reading lessons, except to say that the principle of continuity was adhered to, and that both in reading and in number-lessons opportunity for sci-expression was given wherever possible. A favorite busy-work exercise was the making of original "number-stories," as we called them.

I will briefly indicate the progressive steps from concrete to abstract used in number-work.

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The first consisted of oral work, illustrated by grouping Hailmann beads, sticks or tablets.

The second was the repeating, first in material and afterwards with pencil, of these groups as pictured by dots on the blackboard in varicolored chalk and always symbolized. White groups were "sheep," running along a brown lane or in a field; while green or red "plus" or "minus" marks represented "gates," etc. Brown groups under a rude outline of a roof showed "rabbits" in "hutches," etc. Of course they took their names from the object-lessons of the week, or month. The third step was the translating of these group pictures into figures and putting down of results. And the fourth step, the working of problems in figures from the blackboard, always, however, related to the concrete by being contained in rough outlines of boats, sleighs, baskets, ponds, fields, etc., pictured in chalk of appropriate colors, and with the arithmetical symbols in strong contrast. The child's interest is aroused by the coloring and picture idea suggested; feeling being thus combined with thought and action; and the contrasts make the work much clearer to perceive and easier to do. It is, of course, necessary to prepare this work beforehand, but those who realize the power of the child's imagination know, that the simplest outlines suffice to give the idea of a picture. As soon as the children could read well enough, problems were sometimes stated thus: "5 + 3 - 2 kittens," "4 \times 4 sheep," etc. Form, study connected with the folding and clay, as well as with object-lessons, of which there was a fixed list to be taken up, including natural and a few manufactured objects, and the domestic animals. And this brings me to a special point for transition work.

Children need to feel "cause and consequence," the present holding the past and future, and therefore need sequence in their work as much at the "primary" as at the Kindergarten age; and this is much assisted by a definite programme, planned relatively for the year, as in the Kindergarten, revised from month to month, and, of course, elastic enough to be modified from week to week. In this way our miscellaneous object-lessons were enabled to fall into appropriate situations, and missing links were supplied to bind the whole into as much unity as possible.

A planned sequence of work also helps in sorting and combining the objects and pictures which the children always bring.

The great difficulty in graded school work, is the necessity of giving so much instruction, that by never-so-good methods, it seems as if the children must be cramped for the expression of their inner selves; indeed, one so quickly sees the growth of an imitation of the ideas, language "primar than you garten s school, a morning time, and that the could tal

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giving if the elves; ideas, language and modes of thought of their elders, that I should say "primary" children need to be helped to free self-expression far more than younger ones, and for this nothing can be better than the Kindergarten songs and games. There was no time for the latter during school, and not more than three or four songs could be taken in a morning, so I began to play with the children during their intermission time, and they learned and played the games eagerly; indeed, I felt that they would have gained by having more of the games than we could take time for.

While it is not possible for most primary teachers to have space for a circle, as I have, the "Blacksmith," "Cooper," "Bird's nest," etc., can be played by the individual actors in the space beside the teacher's desk; the rest singing. The "Stream" can wind in and out among the desks; the "Clock," "Baker," etc., can be played standing by the seats as in the Kindergarten, and all the "Sense" games and the "Fruitselling" can be used in connection with object lessons. Gesture songs are common in primary rooms, but few except those written by Froebel or his true disciples have the spirit behind the words; and, I think, many primary teachers would be willing to join Kindergarteners in practising songs, and working out programmes. I often took songs for reading and writing lessons; at the same time, we adyanced a step in dependence upon language by using rather less gesture, and occasionally substituting a poem for a song.

As to the practical transition work which could be done in all primary rooms, at little expense and with a gain both of pleasure and profit to the children, three things are required: (1) The agreement and co-operation of the superintendent and teachers. (2) Some little assistance from the Kindergarteners. (3) A small supply of material. I would suggest hand-work once a week (of course oftener if possible), but, at any rate, one clay lesson, two folding and one or more stick lessons a month. I advise these for a beginning because they are the cheapest materials; they supply solid, surface, and line, form, colour and number; contrast in weight, size, material, etc., fixed and free material in the clay and sticks, with the paper as a sort of mediation; and a variety of hand-training; and, with the exception of the clay, require no additional or troublesome paraphernalia. The clay is capable of being carried further, and is more useful with nature study than any other occupation except drawing. Slates can be used for boards if the Kindergarten cannot lend these, but I find the best thing to be white kitchen oilcloth, cut the size of the desk-top. It is not necessary to have enough for the whole class, as the work is best taken

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in divisions. As to sticks, I would advise two, three, and four-inch lengths, in the six colors and white. These can be also used for number lessons. Of cutting or folding paper, one package of each of the six colors, and about the same quantity of a plain neutral tinted paper for alternate lessons to save expense (this to be bought of a local dealer) should suffice for forty children, as they will not probably accomplish so much as in the Kindergarten. Where there are Kindergarten or Model School students who would give assistance for an hour it would make the work much easier, but in any case it ought to be preceded by a few lectures from the Kindergarten Supervisor upon the theory and practice of the occupations. With a large class of children the objects made must be simple, without much small detail, and the children must at first, especially with clay, make only what they are directed to do, must have "law before freedom." One point more as to the "three-fold development": A proportion of physical training now mingles with the mental in school work, but the artistic and emotional faculties are little trained, and I have found it advisable to bear strongly on the side of beauty in the occupation work, to select for clay work nature forms, decorative tile-work, and simple, but, as far as possible, artistic jars and vases. Tile-work is not difficult, but a few lessons are desirable for the teacher. In folding the children should make charts of their color-folding, doing concerted work. One division may begin the forms and another complete them. Life-forms can be given in intermediate lessons and taken home, scrap-books not being possible for a primary class. Simple beauty-forms and an occasional picture can be taken with the sticks. Stories also help in cultivating the imaginative and ideal; one should be taken each week, as in the Kindergarten. In these suggestions I have borne in mind that we cannot, as a rule, have the Kindergarten and Primary teacher in one as yet, and have spoken of what is practicable rather than ideal, but I do not mean that we should ever rest satisfied with anything less than the fullest realization of Froebel's methods and principles in all education. The more one sees opportunity for carrying them out, the more fully does one become convinced that they include far more than merely a superior educational method; that, as Hailmann says, "they are not confined to the earliest years, but embrace the entire impressionable period of human life" and "skilfully enable the child to gather golden harvests of knowledge and sow them again in an intensely creative life of vigorous well-doing."

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WHAT THE CHILD SAYS AND DOES.

"WHAT THE CHILD SAYS AND DOES"—IMITATION.

MISS JEAN R. LAIDLAW, HAMILTON.

The title of my paper was suggested by Anna C. Brackett's definition of a teacher—" One to whom everything that a child says or does has become a sign."

It would be impossible, in the time at my disposal, to touch upon all that the child says and does, so I have chosen to outline to-day the part played by *imitation*, in the child's development, and to briefly consider its use in education.

We know a child, or a grown person, only through what he says and does. These things are the signs of his mental life. All impressions made upon the mind, all changes in the mental state, tend to show themselves in physical movements.

The first movements of a child are instinctive or impulsive; the child throwing out an arm or a leg, or making grimaces and contortions. Of these Tracey remarks that while they possess no direct importance as indicating will, yet they are "indirectly of great importance, inasmuch as they are the raw materials upon which the gradually awakening child-will exercises itself, making them its own, and transforming them by means of conscious activity into voluntary actions so-called."

These are followed by reflex movements—the instinctive response to some external stimulus, as the child's hand thrown up when a feather brushes its cheek. These movements being inherited, or acquired without consciousness, might be regarded as race-imitations. Under this class would come the movements indicated in Froebel's "Kicking Song." Imitation comes later.

All observations so far made, tend to prove that the first imitative movements are in response to some suggestion of the sense of sight. The child sees a gesture and imitates it. Those writers who speak of it usually distinguish simple imitation and persistent imitation. A simple imitation is one in which the child makes no second attempt to perform an action; while persistent imitation is a circular process in which each repetition tends to act as a stimulus to further repetition. It is this latter form of imitation that is valuable in the child's development.

Most observers are agreed that imitation usually begins in the child after his first half-year, although in exceptional cases, there are definite

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instances of imitation somewhat earlier. Each act of the child recurring in his memory, may itself be a type for imitation. This suggests the way in which a habit grows; but there is a physiological tendency to certain hour imitation to assist in the formation of habits. If one awake at a to-day, the tendency is to imitate that to-morrow. The sight of any person or place associated with a certain action suggests the action. This sub-conscious imitation is a great ally in training; and is indeed the basis of all physical habits—including the act of walking.

The child's first imitations are gestures, in response to some sightstimulus; but soon, the ear, too, brings suggestions for imitation. The imitativeness of the child during the next few months of his life has become a by-word.

He acts, in Wordsworth's language

" As if his whole vocation Were endless imitation."

First he copies simple movements and then more complicated ones, but, generally, before the end of the second year, he is reproducing in dramas the life he sees around him.

The child's reactions are always in the form of play, and his mind being still undeveloped and his experience limited, objects do not make on him the same impression they make upon grown people. He does not analyze them, but identifies objects generally through whatever quality has most impressed him, exercising what is known as the "symbolic imagination." It is in this way that his ball becomes an apple because it is red, or a bird because it will hop.

The child's language is entirely a matter of imitation in its acquirement, and is, itself, the result of imitation from generation to generation of his race. The same may be said of his method of numeration. Left to himself, we may safely say that when the child needed to count, he would employ some method similar to that of the Dammarra native who can only be sure of ten sticks when he places one over against each of his fingers.

A single thought will show us that memory is in its very nature imitative. Our memories are stored with images (*i.e.*, reflections) of things seen and done.

When these impressions are recalled in the form in which they entered the mind, we call the act memory. When they recur without being localized in time or space, or when they are combined in a new form, we call the result imagination. It is ev world for of indired

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n they ithout a new It is evident that imagination is as much dependent upon the outer world for its images as is memory. This indicates one important field of indirect influence.

The child, even in the cradle, is being constantly impressed by his surroundings, which do much to form his taste. He may grow accustomed to harsh tones, or develop a taste for musical tones through the earliest sounds that reach him; and form and color make similar indelible impressions.

A striking instance of this is furnished by Frances Ridley Havergal, who writes of visiting a place that haunted her by its familiarity—the feeling of having seen it all before. When she searched for the reason of the feeling, she found it in a picture of the place that had hung in her room as a little child, and her mother's description of valley and waterfall.

How desirable it is that these first mind-pictures should be ideal. Every act of conscious imitation is in its nature a choice. Certain actions may be willed to be done, or may be willed not to be done inhibited.

Each act leaves its image which stimulates in a way similar to the first suggestion, and each act tends to the formation of a habit of action. Act, Habit, Character. Character has been defined to be "self-formed habits of will;" and is the result of imitations of one's own acts and of other people's.

So far we have not touched the effect on the child of his contact with persons and the tendency to imitate them. Professor Mark Baldwin has made a special study of this.

He points out that at first the child does not distinguish between objects and persons. A little later the irregularities of the latter give him his first impressions of personality. Sometimes he is taken up, sometimes he is not. He watches now and imitates while his sense of others' personality develops as a sense of agency, and the feeling of himself as agent. Seeing others apparently doing as they like, he tries to do the same; and here begins the struggle between obedience and wilfulness. While watching others he gradually becomes aware, amongst irregular acts, of the fixed difference of character of the people he meets, and his responses are adapted accordingly.

(Will R.) One little child when his mother called repeatedly gave no sign of hearing, but when his father called once, in a lower tone, immediately answered, "Yes, Pa, do you want me?"

Through his imitations of other people the child gradually develops his sense of self-hood, as well as an understanding of others. The

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bodily feelings resulting from his actions or accompanying them separate his own acts from other acts he sees, and in this way his consciousness of his own body develops.

Following a natural tendency to universalize his experiences he thinks that what he feels others feel.

In his play we see him living out every phase of life within his experience. This makes the conduct of those around him a matter of vital importance. The harm that may result from a bad example is incalculable, as the child does not distinguish what he reproduces as good or bad, but imitates everything with the same exactness.

We may faintly realize the influence upon the child of those surrounding him if we briefly consider the effect of society in moulding each individual man.

Professor Royce says that "what the individual hypnotizer is to his abnormally plastic subject, such is society to the normally plastic man." Each era has its particular mode of speech, style of oratory, etc., which each unconsciously reflects. The popularity of certain games and pastimes, of certain songs, fashions of all sorts, are largely accounted for by this principle of imitation.

There is in everyone a tendency to imitate the emotions of others. We probably all know how difficult it is to return the "soft answer" when some one is angry at us. Laughter and cheerfulness also are infectious.

The child's suggestibility is the mother's or teacher's opportunity. Speaking in the commentary of "The Little Gardener," Froebel says of it, "This sense of imitation in your children should be most carefully cultivated by you, dear mothers. It relieves you of more than one-half the work of education, and at this stage will accomplish with a touch light as a feather, what later on you could scarcely do with a hundredweight of words."

We are all aware of the way in which a child will try to "live up to" another's good opinion of him, while lack of faith in a child makes him mistrust himself. This is dwelt upon by Froebel in his commentary of "The Horsemen and The Good Child;" and he points out that the child is specially imitative of our attitude to all that is good.

A child's sense of right and wrong is acquired directly from other people. A certain thing he does and some one says: "No, no." Here is the limit of his freedom of action. Here an ideal is set up for him, and the harmony or discord that results from following a prescribed rule of conduct gives him his first idea of "good" or "bad."

There is one point not yet touched upon. While the child repro-

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duces his impressions, his special mode of using what he imitates is the seal of his individuality.

I once remonstrated with a small child who had been impolite to her grandmother. I said, you know mother wouldn't say "shut up," but my argument was somewhat weakened when the mother added : "At least, not to grandma."

What could be expected except that the child would use the phrase she had heard when she needed them. It is the personality added to his imitations that Froebel seeks to develop in the child. His whole plan of the Kindergarten is an endeavor to have the child represent his past and his present with the aim of leading to a clearer understanding of himself and the world, and to develop in the child the ideals of our civilization.

His plea is: "What the child imitates that he begins to understand."

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ADDRESS.

MRS. L T. NEWCOMB.

It is my pleasant duty, and I esteem it a high privilege as well, to represent the Kindergarten Department of the Dominion Educational Association on this occasion, when two such important organizations as the Dominion Educational Association and the Ontario Educational Association meet on a common platform, animated by a common enthusiasm, inspired by one lofty purpose, and devoted to a single aim.

We have already felt the stimulus of coming together on a former occasion, when the grand old city of Montreal gave us such a welcome in July, 1892, that our memories are filled with vivid scenes of crowded halls and earnest supporters of the cause of universal education.

Indeed our colleagues and associates seemed to vie with the inspired words of The Honorable President, Dr. Ross, when he said : "If I were to say where the Public School should begin, I should say it should always begin with the Kindergarten course. There is nothing to my mind more important before the people of this country than the careful study of Kindergarten methods, and the effect upon the child in after life of Kindergarten methods. Within the last ten years the Universities have practically adopted Kindergarten methods, and are teaching more and more after these methods. Their immense laboratories are but the practical working out by the child's own hands of the inductive processes which are practically Kindergarten, and which are the only sound methods known to modern educators."

It was my privilege to hear several prominent educators at the National Educational Association which met at AsburyPark last summer pay similar tribute to the Kindergarten system of education. Dr. De Garmo, President Swarthmore College, Pennsylvania, said: "The moral training possible in the Public Schools is foreshadowed in the Kindergarten. This is the most potent instrument in the hand of teachers for developing the social instincts of the child. All pride and selfish enjoyment of isolated pleasures are soon cast aside or strictly subordinated to the larger groups of pleasure found in participation in the songs, plays a scupations of organized groups. The domineering temper, the peevish disposition are both dissipated in the air of good-fellowship that always pervades the good Kindergarten. The mental training that can be given in such an institution is not to be compared with the moral good that is the inevitable consequence of its influence." Super Schools, our Publ who hav

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Superintendent V. G. Curtiss, of the New Haven, Connecticut Public Schools, said: "The baptism of the spirit of the Kintergarten upon all our Public School work has wrought a wonderful transformation in all who have come under its influence.

Pedagogues who have stood aloof and looked upon its pretty theories merely from the standpoint of historic incident, have been drawn nearer, and have seen through and beyond the plays and games the true spirit of Froebel's thought. In the new possibilities of child effort and execution, they have discerned means of a higher, purer and sounder education. In this gradual evolution of the workings of the Kindergarten our primary methods have been regenerated, and we stand today in the midst of an educational renaissance, the light of which is illuminating every phase of school work."

Dr. Peabody, said: "The foothold which the Kindergarten has acquired as the basis of sound primary instruction is indisputable."

Dr. Lane, of Chicago Public Schools, and President of the National Educational Association, said: "The statistics which show a steady growth in the development of the Kindergarten system in connection with the Public Schools compels the declaration that it is of the utmost importance that all children should be brought under the ennobling, wholesome character-building influence of the Kindergarten."

Lord Brougham said, more than fifty years ago: "Let the soldier be abroad if he will, he can do nothing in this age. There is another person less imposing in the eyes of some, perhaps insignificant. The schoolmaster is abroad, and I trust to him, armed with his Primer, against the soldien in full military array."

May we not say the Kindergartner is abroad to-day, and must we not see to it that she is a potent force in civilization that will do as much if not more than soldier, schoolmaster or philanthropist.

Ours is the vested right not only to urge these methods in education, but to shoulder the responsibility of ideals and leadership, to lay broad and deep the foundation that makes for character in the crowning work of God's creation—man! The beginning is half the end, and if we follow Froebel in his grand conceptions of the possibilities of each human being, we will reject, as he did, the old ideas of education as consisting of mere "instruction," and base our work with the children on "development."

Listen to Froebel's own words: "I separate instruction from development very sharply, and it is a discrimination of the greatest importance. The instructed mind may be compared to a river, which flows round the cliffs and impediments, narrows and widens according to necessity,

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It is not for me at the present time to enlarge upon Freebelian thought, and dilate upon Freebel's theories or practices, when so much has been said and still awaits us for discussion.

In concluding I would call your attention to a beautiful custom spoken of in connection with the Oriental nations:

At night time friends and relatives, no matter where they may be, singles each out a star and gazes at it for a brief space that thus, though parted they may be relatively together in spirit. This custom contains far more than mere sentiment for us. In our individual endeavors we are aiming to advance education; we represent a unit, we are knit together by one calling, and that calling one of the most sacred, not so much from what v do, but what we are; and as the years go by we should dive deep beneath the surface for the treasures that will make for every one of us a power for good in this world.

Let us, like our Oriental friends, keep our eyes fixed on a common "star" and thus co-operating weave the threads of a splendid future for the Kindergarten. "If the Alps, piled in cold and still sublimity be the emblem of despotism, then the ever restless ocean is ours, which girt within the eternal laws of gravitation is pure only because never still!"

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CHILD STUDY AND PEDAGOGY.

TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

CHILD STUDY AND PEDAGOGY.

F. TRACY, B.A., PH.D., TORONTO.

As most of you are aware, the study of the child, as a definite, conscious, scientific pursuit, is of comparatively recent development. Rousseau's "Emile" appeared in 1762, Pestalozzi's "Leonard and Gertrude" in 1781, and Froebel's "Education of Man" in 1826. These great works marked a new epoch and created a new interest. They have been followed by a multitude of others, some written with a prevailing psychological motive-such as those of Darwin, Perez, Preyer, Sully, Taine and Schultze-others with a predominant psycho-physical, interest-such as those of Russmann, Genzmer, Kroner and Raehlmann

ERRATA. Owing to a mistake, the proof of Dr. Tracy's article did not receive his evision; the following corrections should have been made : Page 337, line 9, for "Russmann," read "Kussmaul." " 338, line 12, for "name, instructive," read "näive, instinctive." " 338, line 18, after "scientific child study," read "but there is no	to the danger the lite- in ever- ographs e makes rest now
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Now, it is a perfectly legitimate question to ask : "What is the object aimed at in all this? What is the use of it all? Why should science lay its cold hand upon the little child, invading the nursery,

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and usurping the functions of the mother-instinct and the motherlove?" Two remarks may be made by way of an answer.

(1) It is by no means pretended that scientific child-study shall supersede the mother-instinct, and convert the nursery into a laboratory. Nor should it be supposed for a moment, that the mother herself, in order to study her child scientifically, must say farewell to the native instincts of her being. In fact this whole modern fashion of looking upon instinct with a suspicious eye, and of glorifying intellect at the expense of feeling, is a most vicious one, which, if carried out into practical education, can have no other result than the production of intellectual monstrosities. Scientific child study, then, as I understand it, is not an attempt to supersede the mother's name, instructive oversight, but only to supplement it by a clearer insight into the meaning and relations of facts long familiar, with possibly the discovery of some facts hitherto overlooked.

(2) My second remark is, that child study is not a new science, that it is not a science at all. There is such a thing as "scientific child study." In recent magazine articles we have been treated to a good deal of eloquent explanation of the "new science of child study." It has even been suggested that there shall be four new sciences connected with the child, viz.: (a) the science of the pre-natal period; (b) the science of the infant (psychogenesis); (c) the science of the growing child (for which the name pædology has been proposed); and (d) the science of the period of adolescence (shall we call it *adoles*centeology ! Now, my contention is, that while these are very convenient divisions in child study, they are not sciences. Nor is child study as a whole to be called a science. The only justification for the construction of a new science is the existence of a body of facts of which no account can properly be taken by any science already in existence. Proceeding upon this criterion, I find no facts in the life of the child, which are not legitimately embraced within the sphere of some existing science. The child furnishes exceedingly valuable material for several sciences-notably for physiology, psychology and pedagogy. And since, in my view, the science of pedagogy, concerned as it is, directly with the development of human character, is the higher end, to which the other two are subordinate and contributory, our further discussion might properly take the form of an answer to this twofold question, viz. : What does pedagogy gain from the study of the child's physical and mental growth? But for lack of time I shall not attempt any discussion of the first part of the question, further than to remark, in a general way, upon the obvious advantage

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in every science of studying the phenomena, so far as possible, in their primitive forms and early stages of development, before they have taken upon themselves that complexity of character which always comes with most advanced stages of growth. Perhaps my meaning may be made clearer by a reference to the aim and scope of pedagogy, viz., the development of character. Froebel, defined education as "the development of inherent powers," that is to say, the education does not create, but works upon given material. He seeks to unfold what is there to be unfolded. He lays hold of that which he finds lying germinal in the child character, in order that he may, if possible, supply the conditions under which that germinal datum may unfold into the best that it is capable of becoming. The true educator then looks both forward and backward, backward to the germinal days of infancy and childhood, in order to discover the "data of pedagogy," forward to the ideal "perfect man," which ideal it then becomes the aim and effort of his life to realize. Neither of these insights would be sufficient without the other. Exclusive attention to the germ makes it impossible for us to have a perfect ideal clearly in the mind's view, while exclusive attention to the ideal makes us dreamers, instead of practical educators, and leaves us ignorant of the laws of growth by which the germ is to be developed towards the ideal.

If this, then, be the end of education, and if the educator requires this twofold insight, does it not immediately follow that the study of childhood helps him to obtain one of these, viz., the germinal insight? And if education means the development or inherent power of every sort, physical, mental, moral, spiritual, does it not behoove the teacher to inquire diligently what these inherent powers are of body, mind and spirit, which he proposes to spend his life in unfolding?

Having made this general remark, let me now confine myself to a brief discussion of one or two topics by way of a partial answer to the question: What does pedagogy gain from the study of the child's mental growth?

Among the powers of the mind, none is more important than memory. In the days of "Nicholas Nickleby," education was synomyous with memory cramming. In our day we have swung over to the other extreme and speak with lofty contempt of all "mere memory work." We ought not to forget, however, that memory is a mental power of the very highest importance, and that it is just as worthy of cultivation as any other power of the mind. Memory training means strengthening of the associational powers, and to insure the remembrance of any given thing we must impress that thing not only

upon the eye, but upon as many of the senses as possible, in order to strengthen the associative context of that which is to be remembered. In this connection the muscular sense is of very great value. The child will remember what he *does* better than what he simply sees or hears. Hence the value of writing from dictation, and hence, also, the value of oral spelling, which ought not to be entirely discarded.

As to the Imagination, the educator sees as he looks back to the germinal days of infancy and childhood, an exceedingly fruitful germ -pretty well unfolded, indeed, in the average six-year-old-which peoples the child's world with a mltitude of delightful companions unknown to the prosaic adult, and transforms the common objects of the nursery into the magnificant equipment of a palace or a battlefield. Looking forward, the educator sees in the imagination the forerunner and indespensible condition of all scientific and artistic advance, without which the sublime poetry of Milton and Dante, the glorious music of Mendelssohn, the architectural triumphs of Sir Christopher Wren, the discoveries of Columbus and the inventions of Edison, would have been alike impossible. What shall he do with this wonderful faculty ? Suppress it ? No! but feed it, only taking pains to feed it with the proper food, The child's imagination should be fed with truth but when I say this I do not mean facts simply, but I mean all that ought to be true in fact; and in this sense of the word some fairy tales are true.

One does not need to be a scientific investigator to see how wonderfully susceptible children are to the influence of suggestion; but recent investigations have brought out this fact with great clearness and shown the susceptibility of the average child to be in inverse proportion to his years. (For full details of the experiments of Messrs. Binet and Henri see *Revue Philosophique* for October, 1894.)

Finally, in relation to the acquisition of language by children, I have been at the pains of carrying out some special investigations which have yielded some significant results, to one of which I may call attention. A very careful analysis of the vocabularies of a large number of children at the end of their second year, and a classification of these words according to the part of speech, brought out this fact : that verbs and adverbs were about twice as frequent, relatively, in the mouths of these children as in the mouth of the average adult. Taking the average of all these child-vocabularies, the substantives comprised sixty per cent. of the whole and the verbs twenty per cent., while in the ordinary adult the substantives comprise sixty per cent. of the whole and the verbs only eleven per cent. A comparison of the adverb

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with the adjective shows a similar advantage on the part of the former. Perhaps I may be permitted to state in words which I have already used elsewhere, what seems to me to be the importance of the above fact, for both philology and pedagogy: "In the first place, it supports the view that the acquisition of language in the individual and in the race proceeds by similar stages and along similar lines. Max Müller says that the primitive Sanskrit roots of the Indo-Germanic languages all represent actions and not objects; that in the race the earliest ideas to assume such strength and vividness as to break out beyond the limits of gesture and clothe themselves in words are ideas of movement activity. We have found, from examination of the vocabularies of these twenty-five children that the ideas which are of greatest importance in the infant mind, and so clothe themselves most frequently (relatively) in words, are the ideas of actions, and not objects of doing instead of being. The child learns to use action-words (verbs) more readily than object-words (nouns), and words descriptive of actions (adverbs) more readily than words descriptive of objects (adjectives.)

"In the second place, this fact confirms the Froebelian principle, on which child-education is coming more and more to be based, viz.: that education proceeds most naturally (and therefore most easily and rapidly) along the line of motor activity. The child should not be so much the receptacle of instruction as the agent of investigation. Let him do things, and by doing he will most readily learn. He should not be passive, but active, in his own education. The Kindergarten is the modern incarnation of this idea, but the idea itself is as old as Aristotle, who said : 'We learn an art by *doing* that which we wish to do when we have learned it: we become builders by building, and harpers by harping. And so by doing just acts we become just, and by doing acts of temperance and courage we become temperance and courageous.'"

THE VALUE OF DEPORTMENT.

WM. SCOTT, B.A., TORONTO.

MR. CHAIRMAN AND FELLOW TEACHERS,-While recognizing the great importance of the subject associated with my name, I must say I think it one that I should prefer to discuss before a County Teachers' Association rather than before such an audience as I have to-day, every member of which must have given this subject serious and earnest consideration-an audience, too, in which each one illustrates in his own walk and conversation the fact that he recognizes the far-reaching effects of a proper deportment, not only in managing his school but also in making his influence felt on the side of right in his neighborhood. Had I been consulted before the programmes were printed, it is possible I might have suggested either some other subject, or some other person to deal with this one, as I confess I have nothing that will likely prove new to you on this subject, and so I shall merely try to place before you in a brief form without elaboration, as each is quite capable of doing this for himself, the main effects of a proper deportment of the teacher upon himself, his school, his neighborhood.

I. What is deportment? It is carriage, conduct, management, demeanor or bearing viewed with reference to the proprieties of intercourse. Deportment is said of those exterior actions that have an immediate reference to others.

It will also be admitted that this manner or bearing is merely the outward expression of what is passing in the soul; that an earnest, sympathetic man moves in an atmosphere of sympathy and earnestness begotten from those qualities of his nature; that a frivolous, careless manner indicates a flighty disposition; that a boorish manner points to the absence of "An inborn grace that nothing lacked of culture or appliance."

I know there may be seeming exceptions to this law. I know it is quite possible to assume a manner for an occasion or for a particular purpose at variance with one's disposition.

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flower fame are examples, illustrating the possibility that one "May smile and smile and be a villain." We all recognize that there are shams in the world—persons who at times put on company manners but in the school-room the intuitions of the children ruthlessly tear down this veil of sham and at once reveal in all its hideous hatefulness the hidden nature of such an one. To such fine airs are merely a veneering.

However, with the majority of people the outward act reveals the true disposition. The considerate conduct, the courteous manner, the unselfish act, the grace of word and deed, all reveal the true lady or gentleman the mainspring of whose conduct is a soul considerate, selfrespecting, upright and hallowed by the memories of deeds done from the pure and gracious workings of this beneficent spirit. Such must have been the secret of Sir Philip Sidney's conduct, who could forget his own death agonies to perform one more unselfish act to a dying comrade-in-arms, an act, too, all the more to be wondered at when we remember the disparity in rank between the knight and the common soldier. In such good manners are the genuine wood, not the polished veneering.

Without further illustration, I shall take for granted that, in general, manner, or deportment, is the hand writing of the soul; that conduct is but the revelation of character, the symbol of the inner man.

II.—I come now to consider more particularly some of the outward manifestations of proper deportment.

(1) Self-respect.—The man of good breeding—the courteous man, not the sham—is sure not to be lacking in self-respect.

Conscious of the rectitude of his purpose he is of necessity true to the best that is in him. The consciousness of responsibility for the comfort, success and happiness of others, results in an added feeling of self-appreciation, and to the well-balanced mind a consequent selfrespect, for self-respect like every other quality of mind—good or bad— "grows on what it feeds."

I have placed self-respect at the head of my list of the outward manifestations of proper deportment for, to me, self-respect is the foundation of all true upward and onward progress, and to its absence may be directly traced much of what often surprises us in the conduct of others. Carelessness of personal appearance, general untidiness of dress and surroundings, the use of improper language, the frequenting of places of doubtful odor, associating with persons of evil repute, in short, general grossness of conduct can always, it seems to me, be traced to a lack of self-respect. On the contrary, attention to personal appearance,

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cleanliness of person, and tidiness of dress, carefulness of word and tone of voice, consideration for the rights of others, due appreciation of the golden law of conduct "Do to another as you would have that other do to you." All spring from a manly respect for oneself—a motive too, that keeps self completely out of the question and thinks only of the feelings and interests of others.

(2) Deportment shows itself in courtesy, or the external manifestation of a right spirit towards others.

This springs from a proper appreciation of the rights and feelings of those with whom one is brought into contact. It manifests itself in the deference paid to others by those little nothings which after all mean so much—in the thoughtfulness for the comfort, happiness and success of those with whom we come into daily contact—in the consideration one shows for the rights of these—in the anxiety to place them at their ease—and in the entire forgetfulness of self. It completely ignores self and seems to live only for others, but while doing this it imparts geniality to the person, graciousness to his manner, and surrounds him with an atmosphere of sympathy, earnestness, and cheerfulness.

(3) Deportment shows itself in the grace of manner—in the grace of speech—in the ease with which one carries himself on all occasions, even the most trying. It is easy to be dignified and gracious when all is going well at school, but proper deportment requires that one shall manifest on all occasions that *suaviter in modo* which often shows itself best in the *fortiter in re*.

The teacher who has the genuine quality, not the spurious veneer will never be coarse, vulgar, or overbearing in his treatment of even the most graceless—surely because the pupil is coarse this is the greater reason the teacher should be refined. His voice will never be raised in expostulation or anger. He will never be guilty of those lapses of good form which irritate and alienate at the time, and subsequently become matters of jest and ridicule.

But there is culture in his voice, in his speech, in his posture, in his walk, in his dress. Everything he does—even in the most trying circumstances—is instinct with kindness and consideration, and these springing from the genuine source of all refinement—a true manhood or womanhood—render him an unrivalled educator—of such a one it can truthfully be said—" To know him is a liberal education."

III.—The following is a partial and brief enumeration of what a proper deportment does for the teacher:—

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as to secure the esteem and trust of the wisest and best in the neighborhood. Thus he becomes an example of all that is right and proper both in school and out of it. His influence is thus greatly widened and deepened for, as Professor Blackie said, "No kind of sermon is so effective as the example of a good man."

(2) The unselfishness of conduct that springs spontaneously from the properly regulated man or woman causes such to consider the well-being of others before his own convenience, hence he is extremely careful of his work. He is always exact—always accurate. He keeps himself abreast of the times so that his pupils may receive the best he has. This is true courtesy, and in this case his reward is received at once, for what is best for the pupil is assuredly best for the teacher.

(3) Remembering the words of Horace, "If thou shouldest have me weep thou must begin by weeping," he is the perfect embodiment in his own person of all that he would like his pupils to be, punctual, regular, earnest, impressive, enthusiastic, considerate, truthful, devoted.

(4) Proper demeanor induces a self-satisfied frame of mind which results in a cheerful, hopeful spirit, causes one to look on the bright side of school work, begets a good uniform temper, prevents one from giving way to undignified anger or waste time in irritating scolding, restrains one from committing those petty annoying things which exasperate and provoke the pupil, yet do no good, and above all, prevents one from being capricious, vacillating or spasmodic. True dignity and courtesy are enemies of that besetting sin of many teacher's spasm.

(5) Proper demeanor is a great aid in the prevention of school troubles, and we all recognize the fact that prevention is better than cure. The teacher of fine sensibilities recognizes with far greater ease the rude word, the impudent look, and withal can see beneath the surface and discern the motive far better than the one who is not so blessed, thus he is in a better position to check rising disorder, and his intentions being more refined and sensitive than those of his less fortunate brother, he can deal much more skilfully with all cases of rudeness, boisterousness, failure to show proper respect to others, etc.

(6) Proper demeanor insisting on the teacher regarding his pupils from a proper standpoint causes him to be considerate of their conduct and appreciative of their efforts. This is the best mode of getting one to put forth effort in his own behalf, and as we all know, self-exertion is at the foundation of all true education.

Hence the best way to train self-educating, self-reliant pupils is to place them in a school whose presiding genius is a man with the spirit

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and feelings of a Sir Philip Sidney or a Pestalozzi, a man who is "everything for others and for himself, nothing."

We are all willing and ready to work for those whom we know will appreciate our efforts at their true value, but on the contrary, work is irksome and exertion not to be thought of for those who nag and worry us and who have yet to learn the stimulus that accompanies the appreciation of honest effort

(7) Since proper demeanor imparts to his manner, dignity and skill, and avoids worry and undignified haste, hence the pupils impressed by his superior bearing have confidence in him and thus the maintenance of proper order and discipline becomes an easy matter.

Again, as proper deportment is always the result of earnest training and thus a habit, hence the teacher is self-controlled. He is never taken off his guard. He never loses his self-possession. Thus his pupils coming to regard him as a person of great wisdom and the embodiment of all that is right and proper, find no trouble in consciously doing the right thing at the right time, and this it seems to me is the essence of order.

(8) Co-operative submission to authority and implicit obedience are easy for a pupil who is under a teacher possessed of such characteristics. The pupils really try to anticipate the wishes of their teacher, and mere suggestion is all that is necessary to guide the self-direction of the pupils.

To produce this foundation, virtue, obedience, I know of no way so effective as for the teacher to bring into the school, day by day, a large, sweet nature, in whose heart the fires of youthful enthusiasm are constantly kept burning and from which courtesy has forever expelled blighting, nipping, repressing cynicism. It is easy for such pupils to become law-abiding, law-respecting members of the community and daily to grow more and more obedient to constituted authority and more and more reverent of the works of the Creator and thus ultimately to find themselves in humble submission to the perfect will of their Heavenly Father.

Again obedience is rendered prompt and easy by the confidence which the parents have in their teacher, a confidence begotten largely by that benign influence which a proper demeanor causes to eminate from him. Hence, at school, his work is much easier and far more effective, for this confidence induces the parents to say kindly things of him and so the children are ready, nay anxious, to anticipate his slightest wish.

(9) Courtesy in our dealings with our friends and society generally,

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makes us blind to the little peculiarities of conduct from which none of us is entirely free. So in school, courtesy in the form of tact prevents us from noticing many things we ought not to take cognizance of at the moment, *i.e.*, a teacher of proper courtesy while seeing all things, says nothing, does nothing, and apparently sees nothing of the things he should not see until a fitting opportunity arises of speaking of them without giving unnecessary pain. I know of no more efficient mode of correcting many faults than this simple plan which common courtesy dictates.

Again, courtesy requires that one should listen attentively to the speaker and not interrupt him. Many a teacher would be saved from much trouble and much poor teaching too by simply complying with this requisite of the true lady or gentleman. Why should we be so impolite as to interrupt one in the midst of an answer or statement merely because we think there is—as no doubt there is—something faulty in the facts or diction. Common politeness says, let the speaker finish his answer and then the correction can and should be made. The former plan hectors and discourages the pupil—hinders him from making his best effort and represses the spontaneous exercise of self-activity, and is thus defeating its own purpose; the latter stimulates him to renewed and better efforts for the future, and is thus truly educative.

(10) A well-bred man or woman does not go about in society nosing out scandals and difficulties between fellow-men, but is to their "faults a little blind," so good breeding in the teacher prevents him from making himself ridiculous and offensive by his at times unjust suspicions. He treats his pupils like honest boys and girls, and I know of no better way of making them such than by showing them you regard them as worthy of trust, whereas the opposite course tends to make them sly and sneaking--tends to develop that side of human nature from which eminates envy, malice, and all uncharitableness.

(11) Good manners cause one to hide any annoyance he may feel at some unexpected occurrence. Proper deportment prevents one from worrying and fretting over the many little troubles to which we are all exposed. Hence, the truly well-bred man or woman—not the veneered vanity—is never seriously put out by what takes place in the school room. Common courtesy teaches them to keep their troubles to themselves, hence there is no outward evidence of annoyance.

The pupils soon discover that it is useless to play tricks on such, because they have their trouble for their pains; but how different with the other kind the following will show: A pupil on being asked by the

Principal why he had thrown a paper wad in his class, replied, "Oh! it seems to worry her so, we can't help it."

I have no doubt such misconduct did not begin at once, but the weakness in the teacher's armor induced the pupils to advance step by step in misconduct until control was entirely lost.

Fellow teachers, how true it is that the manner discloses the ability or inability to govern and discipline.

IV.—I come now to consider with a little more detail the effect of the teacher's proper deportment upon the pupils. In considering its effect upon the teacher, it has already been pointed out that this quality in him induces prolonged effort on the part of the pupil and hence is a great stimulus to self-education—that it causes him to be obedient and submissive and thus lays the foundation of character, for the habit of subduing our own impulses and of constantly recognizing the majesty of law and order and so ordering our life that our actions are made to harmonize with these is the foundation of self-direction and leads ultimately to self-control. This is the reason why writers like Locke and others attach so much importance to co-operative submission to authority, and also why in this paper I have called obedience the foundation virtue.

In addition to these, good deportment on the part of the teacher affects the minor morals such as politeness and proper manners.

By manners, I do not refer merely to the finical questions of etiquette which, as Pope says, change with fortunes. I do not wish to be only understood as including such questions as to whether it is good form to eat with chop-sticks, or with a knife, or with tingers, or with a fork, or whether one should pick his teeth in the presence of his class, or expectorate on the floor; although all these are important, but also to the doing of the kind and considerate thing from the spontaneous desires of a refined and cultivated nature. Such is always good form; such is always right, because such springs unbidden from the milk of human kindness.

The former may be the veneering only—very good in its way which is put on for an occasion, but the latter is a part of the nature and can no more be laid aside than can one's identity.

It is difficult to alter the shape of the grown tree, so it is difficult to teach grown men and women not to offend their fellows by their lack of consideration for their feelings, by the rude word or inconsiderate act, by lack of neatness in their persons, by being squalid and filthy in their surroundings, by being wanting in reverence for authority, human and divine; but children, like the young sapling, can and should be taught con thoughtfu horror of v stands for

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taught consideration for the rights of others, to perform the kind and thoughtful act, to be neat and clean in their habits and to have a horror of whatever may give offence to others, to be reverent of all that stands for authority and right, to know that

> "Hearts, like doors, can ope with ease, To very, very little keys;
> And don't forget that they are these:
> 'I thank you, sir,' and 'If you please.'"

Not to think it demeaning to remove the hat on coming into a room or on meeting with one whose position makes him a leader in the community, as *e.g.*, the minister or the teacher.

In teaching these things it is well not to confound the outward act with the inward impulse, but without the outward manifestation the good impulse, unless acted on, will soon fail to make itself felt. It will be like many another good intention born of the spirit, but never being put into execution is soon forgotten. The streets of a certain place are said to be paved with such. The child who is taught to feel and act these becomes more and more self-respecting, more and more sturdily upright and less and less likely to be tempted from the path of rectitude. The mere fact that his manners are good, that he is neat and clean, tends to raise himself in his own esteem and keep him from low vices. Many a one who placed his foot on the lowest round of the ladder by merely performing some act of kindly courtesy has climbed into power and affluence by continuing to win approval in the same simple manner.

But time will not permit me to continue. I must bring this to a close by merely mentioning more definitely the three forces concerned in imparting a proper deportment to the child.

The first of these may be called the social forces, and include the influence of parents, companions and teachers. These are external and are objective.

The second are internal and subjective, such as the feelings arising in the child himself from being a member of the family, school or community. He naturally feels that he occupies a certain position, has certain duties to perform, and responsibilities for which he is accountable. He has a certain line of conduct to maintain and a certain reputation to uphold.

The third are those which are inherent in the child himself. His individuality—the result of heredity.

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I cannot discuss these in detail but will simply call attention once more to the one in which we are most interested—the teacher.

As a social force the influence of the teacher is supreme. The child is early brought under his control, and his influence for good or evil directly and indirectly, is all powerful. Directly, for it is of no small importance to his physical and moral well-being how the pupil behaves, how he enters the building, salutes the teacher, lays aside his wraps, takes his seat, sets himself to work, comes to his recitation, etc. Indirectly, because we teach whether we will or not by our acts, our speech, our manners—by what we are.

Why should a pupil be mentally and morally maimed by coming into daily contact with a coarse nature, rude in action, uncultured in speech, boorish in manners, unsympathetic in feelings? Here the truth is irresistibly borne in upon me that the most important thing in any school is the teacher; that while building and furniture and school appliances play a part, it is a very subordinate one to that played by the teacher in the proper evolving of character. How fortunate the school with a Trelynius for a teacher, who on entering the school-room invariably uncovered his head to honor, as he said, the consuls, chancellors, doctors, masters, who shall proceed from this school-and because he so honored these boys is it not more than probable that some of them proved themselves worthy of this honor. In these respects the school is merely a mirror in which the teacher can see what is best and worst in himself reflected. Then let us know ourselves by studying ourselves as reflected in the manners, habits, language, and characters of our pupils.

Apropos to the foregoing is the following quotation from a speech by the late Edward Rowland Hill.

"Money is not the only wage for which men work, nor the chief wage. They work for honor, for influence, for esteem in the community, and these higher wages will belong to the teachers whenever they are universally deserved. The profession of teaching ought to be so high and so honorable that it would be sought without regard to money profit. Till then we must expect to see the best talent go where it can earn more money with a modicum of those higher wages besides. It is for us to do our utmost that the schools may not have a man or woman for teacher who is not worthy in every respect of the highest honor and esteem of the community."

In addition to the rewards mentioned above I think he should have added one more as does the poet in the following :----

VALUE OF DEPORTMENT.

"NOW AND AFTERWARD."

- "Now, the sowing and the weeping, Working hard and waiting long; Afterward, the golden reaping, Harvest home and grateful song.
- 2. Now, the long and toilsome duty Stone by stone to carve and bring ; Afterward, the perfect beauty Of the palace of the king.
- Now, the spirit conflict-riven, Wounded heart and painful strife; Afterward, the triumph given And the victor's crown of life.

 Now, the training, hard and lowly, Weary feet and aching brow ; Afterward, the service holy, And the Master's "Euter thou." Canada School Journal, 1887, page 391.

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SCHOOL EXHIBITIONS.

M. U. E. ARCHAMBAULT, MONTREAL.

Among the numerous subjects which can interest this great Association, School Exhibitions stand foremost.

To this assertion, it seems I hear the partisans of the *statu quo* reply: here is an opinion which is justified neither by times nor facts; for, since centuries, education has moved forward progressively without the help of School Exhibitions.

Were this objection correct, it would equally apply to agriculture, industry and commerce. But every one admits now that these arts have taken a prodigious development by means of exhibitions; they must be therefore an excellent means of instruction and comparison, otherwise, they would not have taken such gigantic proportions, especially since 1867.

Man's intelligence, served by the native forces the Creator of all things placed in nature, has transformed the means of production and of transportation; and why should not what is good for the development of physical forces, also serve admirably to the development of intellectual ones? These facts have been plainly demonstrated by the last universal exhibitions.

It is unnecessary, now-a-days, to go round the world to compare and admire the products of the soil and industry; the whole world now, on the contrary, meets on a given point to exhibit the products of his labor in order to compare and improve them if necessary.

From the remotest ages there were art exhibitions; the Greek artist exhibited his work in public to solicit criticism on its merit. This usage has not prevailed with modern nations.

"Mansard" was the first to exhibit paintings and sculpture, at the Louvre, in 1699. Since 1737, these exhibitions have been regularly made every year.

To the nineteenth century is due the honor of having organized universal exhibitions and given them such proportions that some people begin to think exaggerated. Let us hope that experience will bring back nations to a just moderation; and to obtain such a desirable result, it would be sufficient to limit the space allotted to each country, to the extent of its territory and population. In this way, an exact idea of the relative importance of different countries would be conveyed to the visitors, and their exhibition give a sufficient proof of their material and intellectual advancement. The fr In this v our eyes such just These

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SCHOOL EXHIBITIONS.

The frequency of those universal competitions should be restrained. In this we should imitate the Creator who has wished to place under our eyes and present to our admiration the great work of his power in such just proportions.

These general considerations were necessary to enter upon my subject; for the most rational way to have a thing appreciated, is to have it known by showing its importance.

Of what is a School Exhibition composed? What can be found in an humble primary school worthy to stand side by side with the most beautiful products of agriculture and industry?

Such are the questions asked by those to whom, for the first time, we speak of School Exhibitions; this also prevented the French school authorities from taking part, in a serious manner, in universal Fairs, till 1867. However, works of art and the products of industry were admired, but as for the products of teaching, every one was persuaded that the thing was perfectly impossible.

The reports of the jury appointed to judge the exhibits, have given the proof that the products of agriculture and specially those of industry are but the forms of the products of intelligence. This rational conclusion has been arrived at, in considering that the intelligent jury does not allow himself to be seduced by the beauty of the product exhibited, but looks at the method employed to obtain this result, which alone is worthy of his attention. From that moment, all opposition, all hesitation have vanished and every one convinced that a School Exhibition was possible. Remained the question to know

A School Exhibition, as well as an agricultural and industrial one is composed of two essential parts, viz. : the material and the intellectual parts.

The material part comprises : (a) School constructions; (b) furniture; (c) apparatus.

The intellectual part comprises: (a) The work of the pupils; (b) the work of the professors; (c) school books.

(a) SCHOOL CONSTRUCTIONS.

During the last twenty-five years, immense progress has been made in the construction of school-houses, to such an extent, in fact, that a school-house of to-day does not at all resemble that of former days. Now-a-days, everything is calculated : the space allowed the pupils, the volume of respirable air, quantity of light, ventilation, heating, the quantity and disposition of water closets, in a word, the minutest

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details to insure the comfort of the pupils are the object of a special attention.

The laws of hygiene are respected; the health of teachers and pupils protected; the money of rate-payers more judiciously applied. Such are, in a summary way, the results of exhibitions and of the serious study made on the spot, by intelligent functionaries and delegates. Let us add to these two powerful means, educational associations in which the most competent persons of the profession meet to communicate to one another the result of their experience and of their observations.

(b) FURNITURE.

School furniture has also undergone a transformation as radical as the school-houses themselves. In this respect, the United States led the way and have shown the example; the American school furniture being as yet the most elegant, the most comfortable, the most hygienic, and, I believe, the most economical. It is but just to add, however, that the Canadian school furniture can compare advantageously with the American one.

(c) APPARATUS.

As to school apparatus, may be found in every nation endeavors to perfect their means of education, and wonderful ingenious improvements. To those who have had the advantage of visiting World's Fairs, France, Eelgium, the United States and Japan stand ahead.

As the restricted limits of this paper do not allow me to make a complete list of all the material progress realized during the last few years, I will pass on and say a few words of the most interesting part of my remarks, that is, the intellectual part of modern teaching.

(a) The Work of the Pupils.

For a long time, it was doubtful whether it was possible to show the intellectual part of the teaching. After many hesitations, however, people have been convinced that, as for agriculture and industry, the School ought to exhibit the product of the pupil and the teacher's work; for, the spacious and even elegant school-house, the perfected furniture, the improved apparatus, are but the tools of the teaching; whereas the work of the pupils is the real product of the school by which only one can judge of the value of the teaching of a country. Then, on such work should be concentrated the attention of all our organizers of School Exhibitions. This is the reason why the exhibition of 1867, prepared by the Minister of Public Instruction of France, has be acquir the sel But represe above things were w

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wever, ry, the acher's fected ching; bol by untry. ll our xhibirance, has been a revelation and an encouragement; teachers and pupils having acquired the conviction that it was possible to show the work of the school.

But as yet, no fixed idea had been arrived at on the manner of representing this work, in a word, of showing a school in real activity, above all, in a World's Fair. This accounts for the heaps of school things exhibited at Philadelphia in 1876, and at Paris in 1878, which were worthless in a pedagogical point of view.

Some countries exhibited ideal school buildings; others, furniture which excited the just fears of the rate-payers; some splendid physical apparatus; others, costly and curious chemical laboratories, ornithological collections, etc., etc. In others, were met a quantity of copybooks streaming with gold on edge and cover, bound in Russian leather and Morocco, full of problems of Arithmetic, Algebra and Geometry, of questions on History, Geography, Grammar, Orthography, Literature, etc., of irreproachable execution with regard to Penmanship, and in which it would have been impossible to detect the most trifling mistake. It was evident that all the work had been done in view of the exhibition, and only by a small number of skilful pupils.

The eyes of the public were fascinated, but, for men of the craft, it only proved one thing, that is, that much money had been uselessly spent, and the pedagogical value of the exhibits, zero. Those rich agglomerations of school things recalled to the mind theatrical actors, clad in rich and gaudy attire, for the most part having no artistic value, to whom the plaudits of the public and the well paid flashing editorials of newspapers suffice. * In a word, it was the repetition of the too general idea, that it is better to show off than to be something.

Side by side, with this dazzling show, could be found the small daily exercise copy-book, representing a few weeks, perhaps a month's work of the pupils. This small copy-book alone was the object of the attentive study of the members of the jury, especially when accompanied by the daily journal of the teacher; thus the class-room could be seen in full activity, the curriculum developing itself day by day; the time devoted to each subject, giving the time-table; and, above all those advantages, which constitute a well organized school, was seen the method employed by the teacher for the intellectual culture of his pupils. It may be objected that the explanations of the teacher, which constitute the true teaching, cannot be seen in those copy-books. Certainly not, but if the teacher be a man of order and method, the written exercises will be the summary of his oral lessons, and thus enable us to judge from the visible, what cannot be seen.

These copy-books, containing all the principal subjects of the programme of studies, should be accompanied with specimens of Drawing, Writing, Book-keeping, Needle-work, Knitting, etc., classified in albums, so arranged as to show a progressive course and a regular method strictly adhered to. This should constitute an exhibition of primary school-work, the base of all instruction, and the main object I had in view in writing this paper.

In the secondary, or classical teaching, the same process may be followed with advantage, to show the proficiency of students.

Superior, or University teaching, can exhibit the different courses given on the various subjects of the curriculum, but generally, in such institutions, the examination questions alone are taken, on uniform paper, simply, but solidly bound together.

Nothing can be more interesting than those questions of the first or the last term of the scholastic year, as they sum up in a perfect manner the courses attended by the students during the session.

(b) THE PROFESSORS' WORK.

The chief work exhibited by the primary teacher is his daily class journal, in which is consigned, day by day, and hour by hour, the subjects of the morrow's lessons.

The classical teacher can also make use of the same process, if he keeps a class journal, which is very desirable, since by means of it can be compared, year after year, the value of the teaching and the progress of the pupils.

In like manner, the University lecturer can exhibit a summary of his course of lectures.

To the class journal may be added any other intellectual work executed by the teaching staff of an institution.

(c) SCHOOL BOOKS.

In an exhibition, school books are a precious source of information for the teacher who seeks in them their pedagogical value, and for the school authorities who examine their cost which is of paramount importance for the immense majority of rate-payers.

Of late, the utility of text-books has been pretty much discussed, the *pro* and *con* sustained by competent parties. In some institutions, few in number, it is true, it was optional to have text-books or not, and the teachers discarded them entirely, their teaching being purely oral, after the example of Aristotle and Plato, who thus taught in the celebrated gardens of Academus. The Comm attend intellig Hav there accord or for a An o take a

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SCHOOL EXHIBITIONS.

The example of these institutions has not been followed; the School Commissioners continue, rationally enough, to provide the pupils attending their schools, with books of which teachers must make an intelligent use.

Having endeavored to show what constitutes a School Exhibition, there remains to say a few words on the manner of organizing it, according as such exhibition be Universal, for the Dominion, Provincial, or for a particular section.

An exhibition in which all the Provinces would be called upon to take a part should be composed of a special Commission as follows :

FROM THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.

A general Commissioner, belonging to University Professors of Anglo-Canadian birth, if the exhibition takes place in an Englishspeaking country, and of Franco-Canadian origin, if it takes place in a French-speaking one.

A Secretary-General, speaking fluently and writing correctly both the French and English languages.

FROM PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS.

A Provincial Commissioner and a Secretary, both taken from the teaching body.

The Commissioners and Secretaries assembled together under the presidency of the General Commissioner, would lay down the conditions of the concourse of the projected exhibition.

These conditions being agreed upon, each Province would prepare its exhibition under the supervision of its particular Commissioner, assisted by six advisers named by the Government, as follows :*

Two University professors;

Two secondary teaching Professors;

Two primary teaching Professors.

In order to give an official proof of sincerity to the articles sent, the work of primary institutions should be sent to the district Inspector, whose duty would be to make a first selection, he being the most competent person to judge of the merit and genuineness of the work.

Having made this selection, the Inspector should address the work found worth exhibiting, to the Provincial Commission, who would make the definitive choice and classification.

The work of secondary and superior education could be sent directly to the Provincial Commission for appreciation, classification, and the dressing of the catalogue.

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All the articles accepted should bear a particular seal with the arms of the Province, arranged and classified by series and addressed to the Federal Commission whose part will be to classify and expose them in the space allotted for this purpose; the general catalogue would also be published by the Federal Commission. To avoid all complaints, always numerous in such circumstances, the space obtained should be divided between the Provinces, at the *pro rata* of their school population.

To those who would be inclined to think such an organization too complicated, I would say they have, perhaps, never organized a School Exhibition, and consequently cannot have the faintest idea of the amount of labor it represents, for, not only must it be organized, but also supervised during the whole time of the concourse; neither have they any idea of the influence a School Exhibition has on the mind of the visitors.

The modest School Exhibition of the Province of Quebec, held at Paris, in 1878, has done more towards making Canada known to Europe than the rest of the Agricultural and Industrial Exhibition.

Had we simply to exhibit some curious or fanciful works of the most talented pupils, it would be unnecessary to have a complex organization; but we must bear in mind and not lose sight of the fact that I am now speaking of the organization of public instruction of the whole country.

The expenses of the exhibition should be supported as follows :

BY THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT,

who would pay the salaries of the General Commissioner and his Secretary; the salaries and transportation expenses of the Provincial Commissioners, Secretaries and advisers, the forwarding and returning expenses of the articles exhibited; the publication of the catalogue, statistics and general informations, the installation on the exhibition ground, and the keeping in good order of all things.

BY PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS.

Miniature school constructions, apparatus and furniture used in schools as well as the expenses of forwarding the articles to the place designed to be examined.

BY INSTITUTIONS AND SCHOOL MUNICIPALITIES.

All expenses incurred for the work of the pupils.

In this manner, the considerable expenses of an exhibition would be divided in such a way as not to weigh too heavily on the budget of any one. I con Befo obtain Ist. be enal the cou have ta The

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SCHOOL EXHIBITIONS.

I conclude by what I should have begun.

Before consenting to take a part in a universal exhibition, we should obtain :

1st. That Canada be considered as an independent country, so as to be enabled to communicate directly with the exhibition authorities in the countries where it takes place. Such is the opinion of all those who have taken an active part in the World's Fairs since 1851.

The Federal Government, before accepting an invitation from foreign countries, should settle this question with England. For my part, having had a sad experience of the difficulties encountered, I consider independence so necessary, that, in case of the refusal of such a privilege, the teaching body of the whole Dominion would do better to abstain.

The motives of the required independence rest upon no political ground, but solely upon the fact that the administration of a universal exhibition is so considerable and complicated, that it is almost impossible to have the most just and reasonable complaint reach the proper authorities, unless one can communicate directly with them. The simplest question an independent country could settle in one hour, takes a whole week and more to a colony. An example among a thousand : An exhibitor has always a free pass to the exhibition ground, requiring only a distinguishing badge to be admitted. On arriving at Paris, I applied for my admission ticket, but had to wait three weeks before getting it.

I do not mention this fact to complain of the English administration, for, we had as President, His Highness the Prince of Wales, the most urbane and kind of princes, and for acting Commissioner, Sir Cunliff Owen, the most obliging of men. All those delays were but the consequence of the administrative machinery. It brings to the mind the fact of a Montrealer who would go by way of Quebec to reach Toronto.

2nd. To make sure at first, that the articles exhibited will be judged by a competent jury, if it be a Dominion exhibition, and by an international one if the exhibition be universal.

An exhibition without a jury as that of London, in 1886, or with a national one as that of Chicago, is a simple object of curiosity, presenting much more inconveniences than advantages.

In London, in 1886, all the exhibitors were allowed awards; the humblest primary school was honored with a bronze medal and a diploma as well as Universities. This was considered the wisest means to avoid creating dissatisfaction. It is evident that this manner of acting must have saved a great deal of annoyances to the exhibition

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authorities as everyone was rewarded. Since then, we came to the conclusion that if such proceedings were just, it should also be admitted that all exhibitors have the same merit, that all the schools have the same value, in a word, that Jacotot was right in proclaiming that all intellects are equal.

At the World's Fair of Chicago, everyone was dissatisfied. When it was known that the articles exhibited would be judged by a national jury, all foreign countries complained, but without effect; some, as France, withdrew or declared that they would not compete, and they were right; for, it was established that this national jury, whose organization and mode of proceeding is as yet among things unknown, has awarded prizes right and left, without discrimination with regard to the relative merit of the exhibits.

A universal exhibition is seriously spoken of for 1896 at Montreal, and the question of a Paris exhibition for 1900, is already decided. If the Public Instruction of Canada is to be represented in these two important Fairs, it is to be hoped that the few remarks I have had the honor of making, will be taken into serious consideration by the Commission which shall be named, and that the Dominion Educational Association will be entrusted with its organization.

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INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT.

UNIFORMITY IN MARKING REGISTERS AND REPORTING.

D. FOTHERINGHAM, TORONTO.

Such methods should be adopted as would enable the Inspector and other visitors to see at a glance the attendance, classification, age, etc., of each pupil. At the same time the methods should be simple, neat and thorough. For these ends the following expedients should be employed :—

1. Marking absence and lateness, but not attendance. At the end of the month the number of days absent could be deducted from the total school days of the month, and the monthly attendance entered in the right column.

2. Entering at the foot of each day's column the number of children actually present that day.

3. Checking the accuracy of the daily attendance by the totaling of the monthly attendance on the right hand margin, and the daily attendance at the bottom.

4. Transferring the monthly attendance at the close of each month to the column for that month in the summary at the end of the Register.

5. Entering the names (surnames first and given names in full) in classes beginning with the highest class, and leaving sufficient blank space after each class for the insertion of all new arrivals.

6. Entering all names in exactly the same order, and in every subsequent month, whether all are likely to attend or not.

7. Transferring all names in exactly the same order with corresponding vacant spaces between classes to the summary.

8. Entering the ages of pupils at once when they first appear at school in the monthly record, but leaving the age column in the summary to be corrected to date, and filled in December.

9. Retaining the same registered number for each pupil throughout the year, and from year to year, when practicable, in all entries and copies of the classes and names.

10. Reckoning half-day attendance as a half-day in striking average attendance at the school, and the actual attendance of any pupil.

SHOULD THE PUBLIC SCHOOL PROGRAMME BE REVISED? —AN ABSTRACT.

N. W. CAMPBELL, DURHAM.

In discussing this important question, it is necessary to consider with some care, four points :---

1. The necessity for a programme.

2. The aims of a Public School programme.

3. How far the present course fulfils these aims.

4. Defects and their remedies.

1. The Necessity for a Programme.

The Public School Programme is the product of modern progress. In the earlier days we read of no such thing. It was not until Public School Education was taken over by the State that a well-defined course of study was set for the guidance of teachers. Prior to that time there was no regular system of national education. The schools were mostly endowed and were for the wealthy. The masses of the people were allowed either to remain entirely ignorant or to get such instruction as they might from what sources they could. In the endowed schools the masters taught the subjects which they or their patrons chose. They were, as a rule, entirely free to teach according to their own methods, and to teach the portions of the different subjects which suited their fancy. Each prescribed his own limit and followed it at his pleasure. The children or pupils committed to him were given absolutely to his care, and to his tender mercies which often were far from tender. All the great schoolmasters of those times had pretty well defined principles of teaching, many of which are still held to be sound; but they prescribed books, not portions of books, subjects, not parts of subjects, for the study of their classes. There was scarcely any limitation to suit age, capacity, or individual preference.

But with advancing intelligence came a demand for the better education of the masses of the people. In England, prior to the Education Act of 1870, the Privy Council gave supplementary grants to schools in places where there was not sufficient private school accommodation for the pupils. But there was no attempt as yet to limit 'the teachers to certain subjects, much less to portions of the subjects for each class. With the passage of the Education Act, however, " payment by results " became a leading feature of public education in England. Competition

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PUBLIC SCHOOL PROGRAMME.

set in, a standard of examinations had to be fixed, hence it was necessary to prescribe a course of study for all schools under the Act, for the purpose of securing these ends. Long before this, in our own Ontario, the wisdom of Dr. Ryerson saw the advantage of a fixed course in which was set forth in some detail, not only the subjects of Public School Instruction, but the limit of the different classes or grades in each subject. Changes in this original programme have been made from time to time as required or demanded by public opinion, and these changes have generally been along the lines of progress towards a broader, more liberal education for the masses. It would seem then, that in a highly organized educational system—a system which involved control of its machinery by the state ; which involved, at least partially, payment by results ; a system in which all the teachers were subject to the same laws and were licensed by the same central authority ; it would seem that a detailed programme was necessary to provide :—

1. A liberal course of study to prepare the youth of the country for citizenship, as well as to secure mental and moral development.

2. A course to correspond with the age and growth of the pupils.

3. A course which could be used with a uniform series of text books.4. A course to provide a uniform standard for each grade or class in the schools.

5. A course which should form the best basis for a higher education. In view of the extreme youth of the teachers of this country and the frequency of changes from one school to another, it will be readily seen that a course of study setting forth each of these points in detail, and perhaps some others, is absolutely necessary.

2. The Aims of a Public School Programme.

The second point to be considered, namely, the aims which should govern in framing a programme for our Public Schools, may be stated in very few words. They are limited only by the aims and needs of a Public School Education. Whatever should be taught in a Public School should be specified in the programme. It is needless to say that opinions differ very widely as to the proper subjects for a Public School course. Each person is apt to look at it from his own particular point of view. There is a difference of opinion also with regard to the point at which it should cease and at which a High School education should begin. Hence there will be a difference of opinion as to the "matter" of the programme and also as to the "quantity" of matter which it should contain. It is not my purpose to take up these questions fully, but simply to point out,

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1. The necessity for determining the best Public School education for the country.

2. The necessity for selecting the best men to compile a course to meet the needs of that education.

In determining the first of these, it should be remembered that the masses—the ninety-six per cent. of our population who never get a High School education are first to be considered. If it can be shown that the same course is best for the ninety-six per cent. and for the four per cent, then that course should be adopted, but if not, then the course for the ninety-six per cent. should be chosen. In my opinion, science should receive greater prominence. That which teaches pupils the right use of their eyes, ears and tongue has been relegated to the top shelf too long. How often are the more common phenomena of life totally unknown to the pupils in our Public Schools! Eyes have they, but they see not, and ears, but they hear not. Gerund-grinding should give place to a deeper and better knowledge of things.

With regard to the selection of the best men to prepare a programme, two or three qualifications are necessary. First, they should thoroughly understand the needs of the masses. Secondly, they should be fully acquainted with the capabilities of the average teacher in the average school. Thirdly, they should have views of educational science so broad as to exclude all pet theories or schemes. Fourthly, they should thoroughly understand the applications of Psychology to the teacher's work.

The committee for such a purpose should be large, or in lieu of that, a number of separate drafts of courses could be combined by selecting the excellences of each. Let me here say, that my own experience goes to prove that no one is qualified to act on such a committee unless he has been for some time a Public School Inspector or a Public School teacher with experience in different schools. No other can see as well as an Inspector into the practical working of any course of study in an ordinary school. No other educationist, perhaps, comes into such close contact with the masses, and is, therefore, so conversant with the wants of the community.

It must not be supposed that I desire a better Public School education at the expense of the High Schools. Far from it. I am convinced, after eight years' experience as Inspector, that our progress depends mainly on our *teachers*. It matters little what programmes are printed and prescribed, what text-books are used, what improvements are made in external equipment or even what system of inspection is adopted, unless we have a cultured, experienced and thoroughly active an alone we High Sel needed in education

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educavinced, epends es are ements tion is oughly active and efficient staff of teachers. It is on the teacher and on him alone we must rely for satisfactory work. Let the efficiency of our High Schools and Training Schools be doubled or even trebled, it is all needed in our Public Schools. There is yet plenty of room for higher education and broader culture.

3. How FAR THE PRESENT COURSE FULFILS THE AIMS OF A PUBLIC SCHOOL EXAMINATION.

Our present programme is a fairly good one. I have taken the trouble to compare it with those of our sister Provinces, and while I believe it is as good as any, or perhaps better than any single one besides, yet it has a few defects which most of the others have not. It would seem that in its preparation, the education of the four per cent. was kept in view more than that of the ninety-six. It lays a good foundation for High School work. With a few changes, it would adapt itself better to the wants of our country, while not lessening its value as a preparation for a professional life. Some of these changes will be pointed out further on.

In a paper read before the Dominion Educational Association in Montreal, 1892, by Mr. Alexander McKay, Supervisor of Schools, Halifax, N.S., the necessity for industrial training in our schools is clearly set forth. As most present will have read the paper, I do not need to refer to it, only to say that if some of its doctrines found their way into our Public School course of studies, it would, in my humble opinion, be better for our country.

One other fact should be considered. In any particular year, only about 18 per cent. of the pupils in our schools are in the Fourth Class. I think I am within the mark when I say that probably not more than the same percentage of our boys ever get even a fourth class education. The percentage of girls is a little higher. In rural schools the majority are compelled to leave for other pursuits about the time that promotion into the fourth book takes place. This is the experience in my own county, and I have no doubt, it is more general than we suppose. It remains then to show that the education given in the programme up to the end of the Third Reader is not sufficient, nor the best, to prepare the majority that thus leave, for their life work. This I shall endeavor to do briefly in considering;

4. Defects and their Remedies.

(1) The present programme is not extended enough. I am aware of the arguments in favor of a short comprehensive course as this is,

but facts go to show that a more detailed course is urgently needed. The reason is probably the youth and inexperience of the majority of the teachers. Every Inspector knows that correspondence with such teachers with regard to what should be taught in each subject to each class is a fruitful source of labour and annoyance. To avoid this, very many Inspectors have been compelled to draft out, and often print, at their own expense, a course in which all the required facts are stated in detail. And to those who have gone through the process, it need not be said that it is scarcely a labour of love.

A more detailed course is also necessary in view of the many changes from one school to another made by teachers every year. Under the general course, the schools may differ and actually do differ as far as if following different courses altogether.

(2) The present programme is divided into two parts—a general and a special. These should be combined and placed in the hands of every teacher. The special course for advanced classes is now read only by the few. If the combined course cannot be printed on the Register cover, it should be printed on a folder separately and pasted in the register—one copy for every school.

(3) The elements of punctuation should be taught from the beginning. Not specified on present course till the Fourth Reader is reached.

(4) Fractions also are omitted in the three first grades. A fairly thorough knowledge of fractions should be insisted on in Third Reader. Experienced teachers find it absolutely necessary to teach fractions systematically in Second and Third Classes in the face of the programme.

(5) The course in English is too formal. "Technical Grammar" could be introduced incidentally with advantage to all pupils from the beginning, if a right course of language training were prescribed and followed. The sentence as the basis of language study does not receive sufficient prominence.

6. Music should receive greater attention.

Many others could be suggested, but enough has been said to show that while College and High School Courses are undergoing revision, the Public School Course should not be wholly forgotten.

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CONCENTRIC INSTRUCTION.

J. B. HALL, PH.D., TRURO, N. S.

The present century is distinguished by the activity exhibited in the sphere of scientific and practical pedagogy.

At the present time, educational thought and activity are being directed to child study, the unity of the subject-matter of instruction, and the adaptation of this subject-matter to the present condition and easy progress of the child.

This trend in educational thought and activity is chiefly due to the influence of a few great men who wrote and taught during the first half of the present century.

By their broad educational views and practice, they have enlarged and enriched the science of education and given a new impulse to patient and all-sided search after truth.

First of these.—Pestalozzi said: "I have clearly exhibited the highest principle in acknowledging observation as the foundation in all knowledge."

Froebel was dissatisfied with the disjointed and scrappy character of common school education.

His desire was to introduce unity into it.

He said : "Let life be considered as being but one in all its phases, as forming one complete whole."

Further, "there must be in the impression given the child by instruction, a regular gradation and the beginning and progress of this knowledge must exactly correspond with the beginning and increase of his powers as they are developed."

Herbart has given definite expression to these views by directing the attention of educators to the observation and study of the child, to the proper order and connection of the subject-matter of instruction and to the adaptation of this subject-matter to the present requirements of the child.

By his scientific and systematic treatment of these subjects, principles have been developed which are an inspiration and guide to teachers.

The application of these principles to practical school work has resulted in animating systems of education, and bringing order out of chaotic and congested courses of study. In accomplishing this work Herbart has extended and utilized the essential principles embodied in the systems of Pestalozzi, Froebel, Rousseau, and others. By him the

sense-perceptions of Pestalozzi have been extended and assimilated with perceptions already present in consciousness. This apperception has become the principle by which intelligent teachers are guided in the selection and presentation of the material of instruction. By the study of scientific and practical Psychology, educators have been led to regard the mental powers as relative to or connected with one controlling centre. Even a partial recognition of this principle requires that the subject-matter of instruction be graded, related and unified.

All the studies should be brought into co-ordination with one another, and the material arranged not only with respect to the child's acquired in formation, but also with respect to that which he will acquire. The material of study begun in the home, should be continued, enriched and unified in the school; also the selection and arrangement of this material, attention is directed to the objective and practical side of education, as well as to the subjective and psychological.

Even the social and domestic conditions of the child, as well as the requirements of civilization should be considered in outlining a course of study for the school.

These home subjects consist of the beginnings of knowledge, in language, moral and religious instruction, domestic and social organizations, varying climatic conditions, food, clothing, shelter, commercial and industrial ideas, vegetable and animal life, indeed the home and its environment, form "a little world of its own."

If these home subjects become the material of instruction in the school, there need be no groping after the central subject, or "core" of study. The central subject is that which arouses and develops a many sided interest in the child and around or to which the others most naturally adjust themselves.

This rounded course of studies, selected, arranged and presented in conformity with the present attainments of the child, will cause him to exercise all his faculties, sustain a real interest in the work and render educative instruction possible in the school. Under these conditions the child is naturally a questioner, an investigator. He examines and tests everything within his reach, and is, therefore, constantly engaged in learning. When the child enters the school, he finds the subjectmatter of instruction disconnected with his home knowledge.

He is unable to apperceive the new material, and soon becomes accustomed to chatter and imitate rather than question and investigate.

The information gained at home was commerced from the foundation, and was obtained by the exercise of his own powers on the material of study surrounding him.

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In the school he is engaged chiefly in studying material that has little or no connection with his previous knowledge, and which possesses little relation in itself except that of position on the timetable or in a text-book.

The change that takes place in the interest, activity and naturalness of the child, after he enters the school, is due chiefly to the disconnected character of the subjects of study. As the child is unable to understand the work, the teacher is compelled to do for him what he would do for himself under proper conditions. The most abnormal results follow, the child becomes the passive recipient of material that he is unable to assimilate or understand.

The desire for real knowledge diminishes, and the use of words usurps its place.

Disinclination for real knowledge soon changes into aversion, and the active, earnest child becomes a morbid, dull recipient of disconnected borrowed knowledge.

It is a serious fact, that this change takes place so frequently that it ceases to arouse consideration or cause comment.

During the past few years, so much has been written concerning the use of the senses in education that little more need be said.

Observation and experience teach us that the spontaneous activity of the child is indispensable in securing the best results in education. Some even maintain that the accurities of the securities of the securit

Some even maintain that the acquisition of knowledge and activity are closely related and that the child's spontaneous activity is the force that sets the mechanism of the senses in motion.

Among the various home studies, elementary Geography is especially valuable, on account of its human side or its nearness to the child, and also on account of its relation to or source of related subjects. In this study, take the child to Nature, and give him an opportunity of seeing the objects of study with his own eyes, of handling them with his own hands, and of expressing the ideas received in his own words.

The teacher may continue and enrich the child's home-information in Geography, by an occasional visit to the school grounds, fields, brooks, mountains, groves, and at stated times on school journeys.

In the study of this central subject, what a number of related subjects come trooping along, as soil, climate, vegetation, animal life, food, clothing, shelter, industries, commerce and social life. These subjects are related to or a part of the central subject, and those who study elementary Geography by studying Nature, must incidentally gain much knowledge in these related science subjects.

In following this outline course of study, the child will be naturally 47

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and gradually introduced to the study of the following subjects: physical Geography, Meteorology, sources of raw material, position and relation of different races, industries, commerce, cities as centres of distribution, government, etc. The home studies are especially rich in material suitable for exercises in Reading, Language, History, Literature and Music.

The descriptions and narratives in which the children are interested make excellent material for Language and Reading lessons. Let them write this material and read it before the interest is abated and both exercises will be pregnant with thought.

These lessons lead gradually to the study of civics, industries, commerce, struggles for government reform, and general history.

This practical view of the study of History should give the student enlarged ideas concerning his relations and duties to the world, and thus better prepare him for the duties of citizenship. Another benefit arising from the use of unified material is the increased value it gives to expression in education.

In using subject-matter that is connected and apperceived by the child, the value of expression is increased. As a factor of education, it becomes a symbol of thought, an outward sign with an inward signification. An oral or written review of a lesson that is understood, or a description of an object, or a narration of events observed by the children, afford excellent material for Language lessons or other forms of thought expression.

Every sentence, oral or written, should be charged with thought.

From the proper use of Language lessons in the school, there are easy and natural transition to the study of short selections of choice literature.

Under these conditions, reading would become the art of revealing thought expressed on the written pages and the means of conveying it to others.

The study of direction, form and number, is closely connected with that of home subjects.

Practical exercises, suited to the development of the idea of number, form and direction, will be readily suggested to the teacher in connection with the central subjects.

We find that the subjects of instruction are so related to each other, in primary education, that they mutually aid and explain each other.

Doubtless the principle of correlation is recognized and practised more generally in the primary than in the more advanced work.

The related material would be more easily learned and understood

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than the unrelated, and this connected thought would aid the memory in retaining and recalling facts, and thus enhance the value of these facts to the possessor.

This unity of study material will develop unity of thought in the child and finally tend to the development of a strong personality and character.

Again, by the use of this connected material the child is enabled to advance gradually and naturally in its education, its perceptive powers are exercised, the interest sustained and the child becomes an active

Before any important changes for the better can be expected in education, there must be a more general recognition and appreciation on the part of teachers and parents of the quality and aims of education, or the distinction between educative instruction and collecting facts or wool-gathering. When this distinction is fully appreciated and acted on, the teacher's sphere of usefulness will be enlarged, he will be required to present the material of instruction in such a way that character will be developed and the pupil better fitted to meet the practical issues of life. The ability to recite a lesson, to reproduce words or ideas from a text-book, is only one test of intellectual power and probably one of the most imperfect.

That knowledge is power is only conditionally true.

The time has come, when the common sense world judges an educated man by other and higher standards, than the number and size of the books he has studied, and this common sense is reaching forward to judge the aims and results of the work done in the common school. Those of you who know best the character and present results of this work, can best determine what this judgment will be. The failure to produce better results in common school work may be traced chiefly to the following causes :- The unnatural separation between-the homestudies and the subject-matter used in the school; the disconnected and scrappy character of school subjects, the multiplicity, size, and unadaptedness of text-books, and as a result of this trinity of evils, the abortive and continued efforts on the part of the teacher to do for the pupil what the pupil can only do for himself. Text-books will not be much improved, until the requirements of the child are recognized and better understood. They will then be written from the standpoint of its needs rather than from the point of view of the adult.

The necessity of greater unity in the subject-matter of instruction has long been recognized by many leading educators, the principle of "concentric instruction" has received recognition in the best schools

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for decades. This principle has spread in the face of criticism and opposition, until many educators are according it a hearty recognition. Many of the best teachers in America are making a practical text of the principle of concentric instruction in their schools. Some of these are conservative in their views, and therefore move forward slowly and with caution, while others have accepted and adopted these principles more readily.

Some of the most heroic of these innovators have already paid the penalty for departing from the beaten educational highways. Some pioneer work has already been accomplished along the line of "concentric instruction." that will aid the teacher in solving many of the practical problems of the school.

Educators and teachers are studying the child with a view of more fully understanding its needs, and more intelligently supplying them.

There have been and there will be difficulties in making concentric instruction a practical working principle, suited to the condition of every school, but by patience, industry and a noble purpose, greater difficulties have been overcome. Every teacher needs the inspiration that comes from a sincere desire to improve the conditions of his school and to avoid educational mechanism and finally paralysis.

A study of the principles advocated by Herbart and practised by his followers will furnish that inspiration.

The practice school at Jena, which adopts Herbart's principles and Ziller's practice, occupies a position in the educational world, at the present time, similar to that occupied by Pestalozzi some three quarters of a century ago. From this school as a centre, light will be radiated that will illuminate every school and brighten the life of every teacher and child in our land.

In closing, permit me to make a short quotation from Dr. Klein that affords an example of the subject under discussion. He says: Dr. Frick, the foremost leader of the Herbartian principles, selects his teachers exclusively with reference to their fitness to teach and educate.

He is not tied down by narrow courses of study and regulations, nor are his tongue and pen tied by considerations of state reasons or breadand-butter interest.

I spent several days in this "city within a city," and more than once sat in speechless admiration at the manner of teaching and the results I witnessed. When I noticed the absence of that rigorous discipline under which many schools suffer, when I saw the children converse with their teacher as though speaking with a friend, when I saw them working with their hands and giving an intelligible expression of what

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they had seen, heard and experienced, when I noticed that they learned as though by means of play, I felt as though the millenium was near at hand, and again, when I considered that after all this band of teachers was in the most hopeless minority that there may be an approximation to this kind of procedure, but never a perfect imitation in the vast majority of teachers in the world; that, after all, this was a mere oasis in the desert, I seemed to feel the millenium recede.

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THE MODEL SCHOOL COURSE OF STUDY AND TEXT-BOOKS.

ALLAN EMBURY, BRAMPTON.

The discussion of this important subject I wish had been initiated by some one more competent to deal with it as its merits demand. The conclusions I have reached are simply my own; but I trust that the criticism which will follow will be full and given without reserve.

The Course of Study pursued in our County Model Schools has remained practically the same for many years; and had it not been that framing Courses of Study seemed to be the order of the day, I do not know that I would have ventured into a field wherein so many diverse opinions are upheld. But, as the High School Course of Study is now undergoing revision, I have thought it well to draw the attention of your section to the question of revising the Course for Model Schools, and so to afford you an opportunity of giving expression to your views upon the non-professional training of our teachers-a question which is most nearly associated with the subject of this paper. From our intimate connection with the Model School System and from our great responsibility touching the administration of the same, I think it becomes us to be fully alive to the matter of the efficiency of Model Schools as well as to the necessity of maintaining our due position in relation to the system, in view of the fact that the fruits of the system too often nullify our best directed energies.

While I concede the necessity for the existence of the system, and give it full credit for much good that it has conferred, I cannot, in the light of past progress, and in view of the necessities which that very progress has imposed upon us, concur in any tacit understanding to leave things as they are. The Teaching Profession is to-day overcrowded; but this fact must not be pointed to as an indication of professional progress. Rather the reverse. This overcrowding of the Teaching Profession, as well as the overcrowding of all other professions, is born of the Nineteenth Century conviction that the object of educational and all other institutions is to produce excellent individuals, to the exclusion of the truer idea that the object of any educational system is to give individual excellence an opportunity to realize itself. This false notion is at the root of the ill-paid professionalism of our day, and it becomes the duty of all educators to inculcate saner ideas of society and social institutions. It becomes our duty to see that the

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conditions upon which men and women enter the Teaching Profession are the very conditions that test the realization in them of that excellence of talent, of attainment, of character, which shall establish their claim to honor the profession, not to degrade it. This may sound uncharitable, but the conditions of to-day warrant it. The conditions of the country have changed, the ideals of social life have changed, the conditions imposed upon us by two decades of progress demand a change, the bringing into existence an educated commonwealth demands the existence of an educated Teaching Profession whose members will still command respect as educators and leaders of thought instead of sinking to the level of dependents. If we wish to maintain the true dignity and status of the Teaching Profession, we must, in my humble opinion, take such steps here and now as will re-establish the true conception of that profession equally entitled to public recognition and respect with all other professions. We must endeavour so to influence legislation that in future the Public School teacher of this country shall be recognized as in possession of such knowledge, as the bearer of such character, as the exponent of such opinion, as will entitle him to a foremost place in society, not only as a professional man but as a citizen. This must be the first step toward his emancipation and independence. We must now look toward the preservation of that national life which is ours by public spirit no less than by inheritance. But the lessons of liberty, of public spirit, have never been taught by dependents. To rescue the Public School teacher from social dependence, to provide for the permanence of his profession and to establish his claim to public recognition, are to my mind the great questions pressing for solution in the educational life of this Province to-day.

Coming now to the actual conditions of our Model Schools, and to the results of the system of Model Schools, I may ask:—Are these conditions and results such as you think desirable in the sub-stratum of a great profession? Is the Model School System not susceptible of such modification and extension as will ensure a supply of teachers of greater average ability, of more accurate scholarship, of some pretension to scientific knowledge? Cannot the shallow empiricism of the average Model School Graduate of to-day be replaced by scientific method? I believe that these questions can be answered affirmatively, else this paper had not been written. I think the time has come for the extension of the Model School term to one year. I think the age of the candidate seeking admission should be at least twenty years. In the light of these conclusions, I shall proceed to offer some criticisms upon the Course of Study, after having, of course, reviewed the qualifications of principals.

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Are the possession of a first-class C Non-Professional and a year spent at the School of Pedagogy sufficient guarantees of fitness in the Principal of a Model School? I think not, and for the following reasons: (1) The literary course for the first-class Grade C is not wide enough or thorough enough to test fully the truth of the maxims and principles current in the educational thought of to-day. (2) The teacher's academic knowledge is not varied enough and sufficiently complete to enable him to assign to its true place in the world of knowledge the academic or professional knowledge he possesses. (3) The academic knowledge he possesses was acquired without reference to its method or to its position in any system of scientific knowledge. I cannot, from lack of time, go into the argumontative support of each of these contentions; but my experience leads me to believe that the conclusions are, in the main, correct. But the questions may be asked: Why do you urge these conclusions? What facts in your experience lead you to these conclusions? I shall answer briefly. I hold that it is not only unwise, but in many instances a grave and dangerous course to attempt to base professional instruction upon an indifferent academic training. The results must be the misapplication of scientific principles, the wresting of the maxims and principles of education from their original and true significance, and too often an ostentatious parade of pseudo-scientific method which is productive of far less good than the ordinary empirical methods. I have repeatedly encountered examples of this cross direction of so-called scientific method. Teachers have been found, and are to be found to-day all over this Province, who insist upon the absolute truth and universal applicability of the maxims and principles laid down by Pestalozzi and other educational reformers. Now, a wider and more thorough academic training in Literature, History, Science, and the Method of Science, would very soon enable these teachers to bring those maxims and principles to the only true test to which they can be subjected, viz.: that of life and experience.

Again, the Model School Principal is too often found to be in the habit of confounding terms, adopting a loose mode of applying scientific terms and the language of scientific method, with but a misty comprehension of the distinctions of language that involve abysmal depths of difference for the accurate scholar and thinker. A Model School Principal laboring under these disadvantages very soon comes, in the course of his experience, to distrust the conclusions of Science and Philosophy, and daily to evince more reliance upon the devices and expedients that experience suggests to him. In consequence, his

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in the scienmisty bysmal Model comes, Science devices nce, his whole work undergoes a gradual transference from the field of philosophic and scientific inquiry to the domain of empiricism. Finally, with him, the devices and expedients of class and school management become elevated to the status of full grown educational principles and methods which crumble at the touch of philosophic inquiry. From this point onward the system of teaching takes on more and more a quiescent adhesion to cut and dried methods labelled and faithfully guarded for future compaign use. Teaching, under such conditions, loses its motive force, more material ideals spring up, and the teacher gradually narrows his sphere of enquiry until at last the subjects of instruction become ends in themselves and the enslavement to the demands of examinations begin. The crowning disaster creeps on slowly, but at last exhibits its sure advance in an apathetic public and a profession without spirit.

Now, I do not mean to say that these tendencies are marked in the work of the majority of Model School Principals. Far from it. They have been pointed out as contingent upon the practice of engrafting professional knowledge upon insufficient academic knowledge. The question arises, What is the remedy? The qualifications of Model School Principals should be of the highest possible character. A first class certificate of the highest grade should mark the minimum. In addition to the course in the School of Pedagogy there should be prescribed a course of reading supplementary, consisting of Philosophic and Scientific Systems, Logic, Ethics, Sociology, etc., with a comprehensive view of the History and Literature of the same. The accurate study of such a course would place every Model School Principal and every Training Master in possession of the knowledge of those ultimate standards and tests to which all educational science and method must be brought. The teacher must know the value, function and place in knowledge of each and every subject he essays to methodize and teach. With this comprehensive view of Philosophy, Science and Literature would come a more accurate determination of philosophical and scientific language, and a systematic view or scheme of the whole process of education would necessarily follow. Into this scheme the teacher would be enabled to fit every stage or fact of the teaching process, and, in consequence, he would not confound, as he too often does, the teaching process with the training process, knowledge with culture, culture with discipline, or teaching with instruction. I do not wish to imply that our Model School Principals are deficient either in professional spirit or in knowledge, but, looking to the immediate needs of the teaching profession, I can come to no other conclusion than that the

usual course of instruction given our first-class teachers must be supplemented by some such course of post-graduade study as that to which I have briefly referred. If we wish to lay the foundations broad and deep for an educational science and practice which will entitle our teachers to the rank of professional men and women, I see no alternative. I am a believer in the Platonic idea that Philosophy and Science can be gleaned only from the philosopher and the scientist, and not from the empirics of the so-called new education, who, whenever they stumble upon what appears to them an indubitable principle, hail it as the greatest discovery of the age, though it has lain enshrined for ages in the tomes of the world's great thinkers.

I come now to the Model School Students themselves. Here I may ask the opinion of my fellow-Inspectors as to the academic qualifications of the average student. I am sure that it has been stated time and again in this section that such qualification is not thorough, and that even the most elementary subjects have to be taught by the Model School Principals. My own experience leads me to the conclusion that the students' knowledge is not wide or accurate enough, or sufficiently co-ordinated to warrant its adoption as a basis for professional instruction. There seems to be little intellectual certitude on the part of the students. They know not that they know. Throughout their whole academic course, their knowledge seems never to have been subjected to a scientific method of treatment. They seem to have no conception of the historical or genetic treatment of the subjects of instruction. In consequence, when such students enter the Model School, the whole range of their seeming knowledge must be traversed to show the relationships of its organic parts, the logical sequence of ideas and subjects, and in fact the whole inductive process which must have led up to the elaboration of each law or definition embodying the pupils' supposed knowledge. In fact, the Model School Course involves the recasting of the subjects of instruction in the light of History, Logic and Psychology. Now, cannot the Non-Professional Courses of study be so shaped and tested as to aid materially in this work of rearranging and recasting the subjects of Public School instruction? I believe that they can be so shaped and tested. Every non-professional examination should be a test not only of thoroughness of knowledge, but of mental power. It should be a test of knowledge, not in its final phases alone, but at every stage of its attainment. I would give a greater preference to a candidate as a promising teacher who could trace the proof of the Binomial Theorem back to the very beginnings of the inductive process in Multiplication, up through

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Mathematical Induction, and through Permutations, than to the candidate who possessed the proof without knowledge of the origin of the method. Every examination should involve questions testing the intellectual certitude of the candidate, testing the gradual growth of his knowledge, and compelling the proof of his fundamentals, instead of asking for the application of final principles. The latter can be simulated from types, the former possesses no loop-hole of escape for the student. No optional subjects should be allowed, and the percentage for pass should be raised one-half. More questions should be placed upon each paper, and in answering these, the candidate should be allowed no option. Furthermore, an examination for so testing the qualifications of teachers should involve the due correlation of subjects, establish their relationship and interdependence, and also mark the due limits of each. It may be said that this would necessitate papers for those looking toward the teaching profession separate from those for candidates looking toward other vocations. I do not see that examinations leaving out of view the points enumerated above can fully and satisfactorily test the knowledge real and substantial, of any subject for any class of candidates. These characteristics should mark all examination tests. My contention is reduced simply to this, that excluding Mathematical papers, the typical examination of to-day tests neither scholarship, mental power, nor intellectual certitude. If I am wrong, I am quite willing to be corrected.

What shall we teach in the Model Schools of this Province? This is the main question to which this paper is addressed. The answer will depend upon a variety of considerations. (1) What are the functions and aims of Model Schools? (2) What can the Public afford as the groundwork of professional instruction to teachers? (3) Has the time come for any radical change in the Model School System? I shall answer these questions in the inverse order. From the repeatedly pronounced opinion of this section, the results of the Model School System are not such as warrant its continuance in its present form as the sub-stratum of the teaching profession. The ranks of the Public School teachers are full to repletion of crude material. To continue the system as it is to-day is to endanger the little permanence that is left to the Public School teacher. The public at any time is bound to provide for the instruction necessary to ensure social progress. Looking to the development of the Public School as one of the guarantees of that progress, I think that the equipment of the third class teacher is not adequate to the demands rightly made upon him. The object of the Model School System, whatever it was at its inception, is now to

lay broad and deep the foundations of a great profession, and the public mind must be educated up to the level of this conception. The step cannot be much longer delayed. The conditions of an advancing civilization make it plainer every day, that the stability of national life depends more upon a people's aims than upon material achievement. To the teaching profession is largely entrusted the future of the people. To reform and intrench the Model School system, to create a truly professional class, and to give that class time and opportunity to win public recognition through the benefits it confers should now be the paramount subject of educational legislation.

I have already said that I would have the Model School term extended to one year, that the age of admission should be twenty years, and that the system should be so moulded as to become the foundation of a great profession. I have spoken of the qualifications of Principals, and of the necessary academic training of students. The professional course of study will depend upon the highest considerations of Philosophy, Science and Ethics. Nearly every Inspector present, I am sure, will bear me out in the assertion that some of the things that come home to us most forcibly in these days of inspectoral visits are the great lack of intellectual certitude on the part of pupils, the uncertainty displayed by students as to the validity of their conclusions, and the almost unquenchable thirst of young teachers for specific methods of teaching. To my mind, this lack of intellectual certitude, as well as this cry coming up from all sides for specific methods of teaching is clearly traceable to the predominance in these days of the doctrines of the so-called associational or sensational School of Psychology, as opposed to the doctrines of the pure Pyschology, the Psychology of Cognition, which insists on the antithesis of subject and object in every true philosophy of mind, on the reference of all phases of consciousness to the mind as their subject. This latter view of Psychological Science points directly forward to mental reality and consequent intellectual certitude; the former view leads the scientific educator to dwell mainly upon the changes in the sensorium as modified by physical action, and is responsible for most of the fads of the so-called new education. No doubt, completer truth in educational science is attained through the combination of the well-established features of both aspects of the mental life; but for the purpose of defining and determining the limits of the subjective science of education, we must start with the antithesis of subject and object. Thus we shall have the teacher acting as the mediatizing agency between the cognitive powers of youth and the world of reality, the world of knowledge and exper-

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The teacher performs this duty of mediatizing agent through ience. the instruments of knowledge, the subjects of instruction, and places the minds of his pupils in a free attitude toward the world of reality, the world of knowledge and experience. Bearing these facts clearly in mind, we shall find that any definite or complete study of education must involve the following: (a) Pure Psychology, or the Psychology of cognition (b) the mode of adjusting subject to object, or scientific method through the subjects of instruction; (c) logic and the logical character of the subjects of instruction; (d) history and theory of education; (e) ethics as the standard and test of culture and character, the end and aim of education. Under section (b), treating of the adjustment of subject to object, or of scientific method, we should find the following: (1) Philosophy of education, (2) science of education, (3) methods of teaching, (4) correlation of studies, (5) school management, (6) the full process of theoretical and practical instruction as exhibited in the following scheme somewhat similar to that outlined by Herbart. I may say that I formulated this scheme some years before I dipped into the pages of Herbart. Following is the process in outline :

- (a) Process of apperception,
- (b) Generalization,
- (c) Classification,

Teaching-Induction-Knowledge.

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- (d) Law, Description, Definition.
- (a) Application of law to solution of difficulties yielding to (Training or Discipline-Deduclaw, or performance of acts through knowledge of law.

tion-Culture.

Here the whole process of instruction is separated into two main branches under the heads of teaching and training or discipline. Teaching is carried on through the process known as induction, and its result is knowledge. Training or discipline is carried on through the process known as deduction, and its result combined with the results of all preceding factors is known as culture. The stages numbered (a), (b), (c), (d), (a), call for no comment, since their place and function are now generally recognized. As to the value of this scheme, I may say that I am aware of its imperfections, and of the fact that it cannot be made to include all classes of instruction. It will serve, however, to define and regulate the different stages of the process of instruction, it exhibits a clearly defined meaning and application of terms frequently confounded and as frequently misunderstood. Its mastery will insure completer instruction, and it affords a

standard according to which any phase of instruction can be tested. It is commended to my mind as a daily corrective to the tendency to drift into empirical teaching as well as into partial performance of duty.

As to the mode of treatment of the different departments of study in a Model School, the time allotted to this paper forbids my entering upon any discussion. I may say, that my experience both as a Model School Principal and as an Inspector, leads me to believe that entirely too much work is generally attempted by the Principal compared with that attempted by students. Once a week, at least, every student should be given some subject for independent investigation. First would come the order of presentation of the subjects of instruction. For instance, assign to the student the task of investigating the inductive and deductive stages in the presentation of the first two propositions Book I., Euclid; to another the same stages in some classifications in formal Grammar. Other subjects might be the students' own mental phenomena, observations of the mental life of children both in and out of school, the framing of lesson plans, and the bearings of educational principles upon the devices and expedients of school management. Any or all of these would furnish admirable and almost inexhaustible topics for discussion in the Model School class room. There should always exist, in connection with every Model School, a professional library to which students would almost invariably have recourse in the work of investigating their assigned subjects.

The text-books in present use would, in carrying into effect any such scheme as I have outlined, have to be superseded. Baldwin's Art of School Management is an admirable book in many ways, but it stands sadly in need of methodizing. Its many phases of the educational question existing side by side, tend to confusion in the minds of students. Much, I might say most of it, that refers solely to school management might be retained, if modified to agree with the practice of Canadian Schools. The theoretical and practical principles of teaching should be recast and grouped under definite and suitable headings so as to permit of their discussion under the psychological and organic principles whence they derive their origin. Physiology and Hygiene is an academic subject, and should be treated as any other subject of instruction and in its relation to school management. Further than this, it should have no place in the course of study. In the subjects of Method and Ethics, the teacher himself should be the sole text-book. Among books on the subject of Educational Science, Bain's Education as a Science, to my mind, still holds the foremost place; while R. H. Quick's "Educational Reformers" is easily

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before all others for students' use as an historical text-book. The subject of Psychology will always remain the storm-centre of educational controversy; but I have no hesitation in saying that Jardine's "Psychology of Cognition," and Welch's "Psychology for Teachers," are the books that merit selection. For the purpose of explaining, defining, and fixing the limits of the terminology of the Science of Psychology, I may say that Welch's work is superior to most others; while in the realm of Pure Psychology, the work of Dr. Jardine—a native Canadian—stands second alone to the peerless work of Professor Bowne, of Boston University. In Logic the primer published by Stanley Jevous, or Thompson's "Outlines of the necessary Laws of Thought," would amply supply the needs of the student, and would assist materially in the art of classification and definition.

This paper has already extended beyond its due limits; but I trust to be permitted a few general observations. I shall doubtless be asked why I demand such a thorough-going treatment of educational science at the very threshold of the teacher's career. My answer shall be brief. It is because I am convinced that in the Public Schools of to-day, much of the teaching results neither in intellectual conviction, in moral certitude, nor in definiteness of ethical standards. Those who care to read the signs of the times must come to the conclusion that the secular idea in education is daily growing stronger and effecting conquests in the educational domain. Unless we speedily provide for the proper training of teachers, and make it our aim that their teaching shall result in the clear accomplishment of definite objects, we shall not be true to the interests entrusted to us. Any educational process that finally injures the intellect is bad; any process of instruction that weakens the character or mars it is vicious; any system that results in injury to the conscience is criminal. Who in these days can be found to mistake credulity for faith or to assert that moral certitude is possible without a basis of intellectual conviction. All uncertainty, and much lack of intellectual conviction, result from the predominance in our educational thought and practice of the doctrines of a quasi-materialistic and sensational philosophy combined with indefinite instruction. It must ever be borne in mind that it takes much longer to get rid of the practices which dominant schools of thought have engrafted upon us than to get rid of belief in their creeds. Not many years ago, a prominent divine of this city stated that the tendency of the current systems of education was to produce weak and irresolute types of character. To some extent I agree with him; but the remedy is not to attack the system but to reform the teacher. This reform can be entered upon at once

by bringing him to the test of higher standards and completer knowledge such as will cause him to leave to his pupils stronger and firmer intellectual convictions, clearer volitions, greater moral certitude, and quicker consciences, than are the results of his work to-day. "Society rests upon conscience, and not upon science. Civilization is first and foremost a moral thing. Without honesty, without respect for law, without the worship of duty, without the love of one's neighbor—in a word, without virtue—the whole is menaced and falls into decay, and neither letters nor art, neither luxury nor industry, nor rhetoric, nor the policeman, nor the custom-house officer, can maintain erect and whole an edifice of which the foundations are unsound."

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TEACHING MODEL SCHOOL LESSONS—A SYNOPSIS. J. DEARNESS, LONDON.

The Inspector's duties are of a varied character—an auditor of school accounts, a compiler of statistics, an arbiter in school disputes, those with which he is specially charged in connection with the visitation, inspection, examination of his schools and official reporting of his observations. But of all his duties or privileges, the discharge of no others is more important or helpful in promoting educational progress than the work that he does or may do as a teacher of model lessons. Going from school to school, daily witnessing the practice and methods of teachers who in his presence are naturally trying to do their best work, he should become a collector and distributer of the best produced by many workers, and with his opportunity of putting these good points into daily practice, the Inspector ought to become the *par excellence* teacher of model lessons.

When has he time for doing this work-the teaching of model lessons? With a system of county promotion examinations, the Inspector is relieved of a large part of mere examination work that formerly was expected of him. By devoting the time before recess to inspecting the sanitary conditions, registers, furniture, equipments, methods of instruction and discipline practiced by the teacher, he has the remaining half of the session for teaching model lessons and doing such examination as he may deem necessary. The model lessons he gives are mostly chosen for two purposes. He may deem that a certain desirable quality of work needs "booming" throughout the division; in this,-it may be reading, neatness of written work, accuracy in mechanical work in arithmetic, training of the observation, grace and precision of class movements, or one of many other departments of school-work-he would give a lesson in every school. Again, as a result of his observations in the first hour of his visit or of his examination he has discovered the necessity of giving a lesson on some subject in which the teacher seems specially to need assistance. The Inspector's work in this respect comes to naught, unless he has the critical attention of the teacher throughout the lesson and subsequent discussion of it with him.

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PROGRAMMES FOR UNGRADED SCHOOLS_AN ABSTRACT

J. S. DEACON, MILTON.

It has been a common subject of complaint that there are too many subjects on the Public School programme. Some educationalists would eliminate only Physiology and Agriculture, others would strike off Drawing and music, while others, yet more radical, would exclude English History, Canadian History or English Grammar, if not all three of these subjects.

Again, it is frequently urged that while all these studies may be profitably pursued in graded schools, there is no time for them in ungraded schools. Experience proves, however, that under good teachers, the latter are the ideal schools of our system. Pupils have more time for independent thinking, and just as many subjects can be taken with even better results (upon the average) than can be obtained in graded schools.

Let it be granted that all these subjects are suited to the mental capacity of children from seven to fourteen years of age, and that they are of sufficient importance to be taught for purposes of utility or culture to the ninety per cent. who will never enter a High School, and the objections to the present programme fail of support.

Not only so, but there appear to be good reasons for adding to the programme new subjects. One of these reasons we may mention as the need of variety. Pupils are not endowed with mental hunger for formal studies. They become stupefied by the monotony of routine, by" vain repetitions and the restraint imposed upon them by their new environment. To these causes we may add the abstract nature of the studies pursued. Simple lessons in Botany and Zoology, and later, successively, in Physics, Chemistry and Mineralogy, would be of immense advantage in cultivating the powers of observation and bringing the child into contact with Nature, to say nothing of increased interest in all school work. No text-book in these subjects should be permitted to the pupils. The teacher should ask some new question each evening, or at the close of each week; the pupils would be expected to find the answer by their own observation, comparison, etc. For example, they might be required to describe, from their own observation, our native trees, animals, etc., with their characteristics; or they might be asked to name as many kinds of tree as they had seen, then to state how one variety is distinguished from others, the

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kind or character of leaf, bark, fibre, fruit, etc. By a similar method much valuable knowledge could be imparted to the whole school from individual observation upon drainage, cultivation of soil, feeding and general care of stock, etc.; the teacher's duty being to direct the efforts of pupils and to correct errors when necessary. "Leaving Science out of the Public Schools is inverting the natural order and process of youthful development." Language cultivates memory, Mathematics the reasoning faculty, and Science the power of observation. The most natural power in the child is observation. It should be directed and trained early in its course of study to utilize and strengthen this faculty, for in youth the sense of vision is the most acute.

In ungraded or rural schools there are greater opportunities for these Nature studies, and it is here that success in them should be assured. The well worn objection, "want of time," will be raised; how shall it be met?

First. There need be no haste to cover the course. The crying evil of to-day is that our pupils reach the "Entrance" or "Public School Leaving" at "too early an age." The teacher's effort should be to keep pupils engaged in efficient study and self-development.

When pupils learn to be interested in getting knowledge for themselves, the teacher will have plenty of time for every subject on the programme, even with the suggested additions.

Second. Much time is now lost in school hours through listlessness of pupils, too much dependence upon the teacher, or by disorder. The variety produced by the introduction of Nature studies would have the effect (in the words of David P. Page) of "waking up mind" and giving increased interest to all the work of the school. It is of the greatest importance that children be trained to habits of intellectual industry.

Third. Much time can be saved by using expedients or by improved management.

(a) By conducting two or more classes at the same time in Arithmetic and Dictation, also in many other subjects for review.

(b) By combining two classes for a whole term, as in Geography and History, a junior Third Class, for example, might unite with the seniors in the study of English History and Europe or South America, deferring their work with Canadian History and their own Geography limit until the following term, when they would be joined by a new junior Third Class. This plan is especially valuable where the attendance is small, as it relieves teacher and pupils of the tedium of so many small classes.

(c) By dropping Writing from the list of subjects to be taught, after the Second Class.

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(d) By abolishing the useless "Literary" Programmes commonly rendered on Friday afternoons. To substitute for these observation lessons in Geography, Botany, Zoology, Physics, etc., would be doing a good work, even if no other change were made.

Fourth. The teacher's time should be judiciously distributed to each subject according to its importance, and not only to each subject, but to each class in accordance with its necessities.

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Our advanced classes are apt to get too much attention from the teacher and the primary classes too little. Young teachers frequently err in this respect, and those of larger experience are not blameless. Probably, a fair division of time in a rural or ungraded school would be to give Reading, Spelling, Literature and Composition, twelve hours per week; Arithmetic, five; Grammar, Geography and History, six; Writing, Drawing, Physiology and Science (including agriculture), one each. This arrangement provides for twenty-seven hours per week; the remaining three would be occupied with opening exercises and recesses.

Finally. "A good education is to know a little of everything and a good deal of something." If this be true, then for the very large proportion of pupils whose only College will be the Public School, we have not too many subjects on the programme.

It might, however, be better to omit much of our technical Grammar; all but the last two periods of English History, and even to adopt the Spelling reform than to omit elementary Science from the Public Schools.

MUSIC IN SCHOOLS.

MUSIC IN SCHOOLS.

A. T. CRINGAN, TORONTO.

The importance of musical training as a factor in the education of the young, has long been recognized by all leaders of thought in connection with the science of education. Pestalozzi has been credited with being the first to introduce musical training into the school and establish it in a position of equality with other subjects usually considered essential to the harmonious development of the child. The first great principle which we have to hold by in dealing with the subject is that the great end of Music is not to amuse. Ruskin says that "All Art which proposes amusement as its end, or which is sought for that end, must be of an inferior, and is probably of a harmful class. The end of art is as serious as that of other beautiful things-of the blue sky, and the green grass, and the clouds, and the dew. They are either useless or they are of a much deeper function than giving amusement." Later, in writing of his plans for the education of the children of ideal England, he says, "In their first learning they shall be taught the great purpose of Music, which is to say a thing that you mean deeply in the strongest and clearest possible way; and they shall never be taught to sing what they don't mean. They shall be able to sing merrily when they are happy, and earnestly when they are sad; but they shall find no mirth in mockery or obscenity, neither shall they waste and profane their hearts with artificial and lascivious sorrow." Much is to be learnt here, if one searches a little beyond the words into the real meaning of the passage. It sweeps away the artificial with a strong hand, and places truth in Music in the highest place from the first learning of notes, and shows that in song high and true sentiment, alike of melody and idea, should be the true ambition of all who would guide the young in the cultivation of the gift of song. One of the chief means of diffusing national sentiment is afforded by the study of songs which embody and express high ideals of national spirit and preserve for our youth the traditions of our country's triumphs, and inspire confidence in her greatness and strength. In all countries where the education of the people has received the greatest attention, instruction in singing has long been regarded as an important branch of school discipline. Sentiments appropriate to childhood and youth find expression in the songs taught in elementary schools; and lessons calculated to make a deep impression on the character of children and to influence their future conduct are linked with the most pleasing

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associations in the songs sung in the schools of nearly every civilized country. Germany and Switzerland were among the first to recognize the importance of Music as a branch of education, but were closely followed by England and America. Now we hear of the extension of the movement to the Australian colonies, Africa and Japan. Two years ago I observed that the Queensland Government sent a commission to England to study the methods in vogue there, and as a result they have adopted a scheme to encourage systematic instruction in singing in their elementary schools. The Music syllabuses of the London and Bradford schools have been published in full for the guidance of Queensland teachers, and strong arguments in favor of the Tonic-Solfa method are quoted in a circular issued by the Department of Public Instruction.

It may interest you to know something of what has been accomplished in the teaching of Music in Public Schools, and the means employed in producing the results which have placed our Motherland in the proud position of having surpassed all others in the cultivation of Music, not for the people, but by the people. It will be unnecessary for me to explain that the amount of Government grant for educational purposes depends on the Inspector's report as to the degree of proficiency displayed in the various subjects prescribed by the Code, each of which receives a specific grant of its own. The amount of grant earned for the teaching of any one subject, as indicated by the annual reports published in the "Blue Book," affords an unfailing record of the extent to which that subject has been taught. The grant for the teaching of music in elementary schools was offered for the first time in 1867. Up till 1869 only one school had succeeded in earning this grant. This shows how little enthusiasm was manifested in teaching Music twentysix years ago. In 1870 only forty-three schools from a total of twelve thousand obtained the grant. In 1871 a new Code was made and the music grant withdrawn. In 1872 a compromise was made and one shilling per head was deducted from the general grant if Music was not taught. No difference was recognized between note and ear singing, all being paid for alike. In 1879 a Government enquiry elicited the fact that 2,944 schools taught by note and 21,224 by ear. In 1883 a new Code was introduced and one shilling per head, per annum, was paid for note singing, and only half the amount for ear singing. Since then no alteration has been made. Now, let us compare these results with the results obtained during the past year. The average number of children in attendance at grant-earning schools in England, Scotland and Wales, during the past year was 4,665,702.

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MUSIC IN SCHOOLS.

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The number who earned the grant for singing was 4,653,309, or practically all, as the number who failed to pass the requisite examination (12,393) is insignificant in proportion to the whole. Of those who earned the singing grant, 3,720,531 passed in singing by note and only 932,778 in singing by ear. From this we learn that nearly all of the children attending the Public Schools of England, Scotland and Wales, are taught Music sufficiently well to enable them to pass the examination of Her Majesty's Inspectors, and that four-fifths of these are taught to sing by note and only one-fifth by ear.

My object in bringing these facts before you is not to draw comparisons between the state of affairs existing in the countries mentioned and our own, but to show what can be accomplished by ordinary means when intelligently directed and supported by a liberal minded government. In Canada we have done well and our teachers and Inspectors deserve much credit for what has already been accomplished ofttimes in the face of difficulties apparently insurmountable. The problem which now confronts those who would wish to see musical training established on a satisfactory basis in the schools of Ontario is-how to employ the means at our disposal so as to produce satisfactory results. At present no definite instructions regarding Music are issued by the Education Department. It is merely suggested that Music be taught. Inspectors may permit the use of any method which their teachers may desire to use. No syllabus or limit table is issued for the guidance of teachers. Systematic teaching in Model Schools is the exception. Of the teachers who enter the Normal Schools, many have had excellent instruction, so far as it goes, some have been imperfectly trained and others have had no musical training whatever. The result of this lack of system is decidedly unsatisfactory. The teaching in the Normal Schools has, of necessity, to be adapted to the needs of the weaker class, and the work done is such as belongs by right to the Public and Model Schools. In all other branches a practical knowledge of the subject is required on entering, and students are expected to study methods of teaching. Is there any logical excuse for this state of affairs? I think not.

Permit me now to offer a few suggestions as to how the various existing obstacles may be overcome. The first obstacle which presents itself is found in the attitude of the ratepayers, or parents. We sometimes hear of the all-sufficiency of the three R's, and have to combat the assertion that Music is an expensive luxury which cannot be afforded in Public Schools. Fortunately this objection is gradually giving way before more enlightened ideas. It can be proved that Music can be taught in Public Schools without any additional outlay other than is

required for song books, which can be provided at the cost of a few cents. If Music has the refining and educating influence which its advocates claim for it, why should its benefits be enjoyed only by the children of the rich, who are in a position to provide expensive musical instruments, and lessons at \$10 to \$20 a quarter? The children of the working classes, who are the backbone of the community, have a right to the best that we can give them in general education and culture. This fact has been recognized by the Trades and Labor Council of this city, who last year passed a strongly-worded resolution condemning the action of retrograde Trustees, who would deprive Public School children of instruction in Music and Drawing, from false views of economy.

The next obstacle which is encountered is presented by the teachers. They say, and not without some show of reason : "We have never been taught how to teach Music, and cannot be expected to do so." This same argument was offered in England twenty-five years ago, and overcome, as it has been in Canada many times since. Let it be shown that Music must be taught, and provide means whereby teachers may qualify for the work, and this difficulty will soon vanish. When it is clearly understood that Music is no longer an optional subject, teachers who have the interests of their schools at heart will soon become anxious to learn more of Music and how to teach it, the standard of culture will be raised, the study of Music will have a beneficial and elevating influence on the teachers themselves, which must inevitably affect the pupils under their charge, and an all round benefit must ensue. Among the most successful teachers of Music in the Toronto schools at the present time is a teacher in one of the outlying district schools, who three years ago did not know a note of Music, and informed me that she could not sing a single sound. By persevering effort and an occasional stumble, she mastered the work prescribed for her grade. Some time ago I was able to inform her that her class was the best in its grade, and that I would report the matter to the Principal and Inspectors. On the occasion of my next visit I found that every teacher in the school had done much better work than ever before, determined not to be behind in the good work. At first sight this may seem to be a small matter, but at the risk of introducing personal matters, I will tell you that, at one time I dreaded my monthly visits to this school. The children were inattentive, their singing was coarse and noisy, and little or no interest was manifested in Music. Now I can look forward with pleasure to any visit, and the general tone of the entire school has been elevated, and the principal factor in producing this improved state of affairs has been a teacher who at one time considered herself utterly incapable of musical culture.

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MUSIC IN SCHOOLS.

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In introducing the subject of Music, we must be careful to avoid the appearance of expecting too much. This brings me to the most practical part of my paper. 1 would suggest that the Education Department be petitioned to issue a programme or limit table of musical study, adapted to the present requirements of every grade from the First Book Class to the Model School. Provision should be made for the Staffnotation and the Tonic-solfa. While I prefer the latter as the most practical, and best adapted for educational purposes, I would oppose any movement aiming at confining the teaching in our schools to any one system. The proposed syllabus should specify certain requirements in time, tune, voice-training, ear-training and prepared songs in one notation, and requirements of equal difficulty in the other, the choice of method being left to the discretion of the Principal. If the prescribed musical facts and effects are properly taught and mastered there need be no conflict between rival methods. The question with teachers would then be, how can I best secure the results which are expected of me? They would then be induced to study the principles underlying various systems, and would ultimately decide in favor of that which, in their judgment, was found to be the best.

Let us now suppose that this syllabus or programme has been issued, and you are confronted with the problem of how to introduce the study of Music into your schools. Some one will say, we have no teacher who can instruct the teachers, so as to enable them to teach Music successfully. To such I would say, look out for some teacher who is possessed of a fairly good voice, and the necessary ability to impart instruction to others. Get such an one to study the requirements of the programme, and arrange a weekly class, if possible, where he or she may have the opportunity of instructing others in the subjects prescribed. Last year I was present at a county convention in a town where this method had been followed, and was requested to illustrate how to teach some subject about which the teachers were uncertain-A class of children was provided, but I was informed that they did not know much about Music, and it would be necessary to lead up to the subject gently before introducing it. I was agreeably surprised to find that the youngsters had been thoroughly well taught, and were quite up to the standard of similar grades in the best of our city schools.

There are many points which I could wish to introduce here, but my object in coming before you is not to give an exhaustive essay on the subject of Music, but merely to offer a few suggestions, in the hope that they may provoke a full discussion of various aspects of the case which may elicit more useful information than anything I have here offered.

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THE FIFTH FORM IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

JAS. H. BURRITT, B.A., PEMBROKE.

1. In my paper last year I said the new regulations made the Fifth Form compulsory in all Public Schools. This was denied by some, but in the sitting of the Legislature just closed the Minister of Education stated on the floor of the House that it was compulsory.

2. This now being an established fact, it goes without saying that this Form should be made as efficient as possible; and also that it is unwise management to add a department and then perpetuate its inefficiency.

3. If my statement last year, that the curriculum of the Fifth Form, and those of Forms I and II of the High School (minus the Classics) are practically similar, be correct-and I submit that it is beyond contradiction-and that those who go from the Fifth Form to Form II of the High School (the best feature of the complication) are practically not advanced at all, the time spent in Form II (one year by necessity) is really so much time thrown away. This cannot be satisfactory. And it must be borne in mind that a year lost by a child at that age is hardly ever regained. As I said, this is the best feature of the complication --- if a pupil goes from Form V, Public School, into Form II of the High School, Form I in the High School is only, then, for those who go there from the Public School Forth Form by means of the Entrance Examination, which I am sorry to say is still retained. What must be the result of the continuance of this system ? Necessarily that children will not waste (as they hastily consider it) their time by going through the Fifth Form, but they will take advantage of the Entrance Examination and enter Form I of the High School. This must paralyze and render almost useless the Public School Fifth Form.

Now if the Fifth Form embraces all the English studies of Forms I and II of the High School, and the Fifth Form is permanent and compulsory, there can no longer be any reason for these same subjects in the High School for the same pupils who have passed examinations upon them, to spend an extra year practically reviewing their work, not only costing them a year in time, but at almost five times the expense to the public. 4. sittin uses the It m relat does not o

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FIFTH FORM IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

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4. The Minister, in his report on Education presented at the last sitting of the Legislature, at page XIV, referring to the High Schools, uses these words: "It may be true that relatively the attendance at the High School is smaller than the attendance at the Public School. It may be true also that the cost of maintaining a High School is relatively greater than the cost of maintaining a Public School. It does not follow, however, that the advantages to the community are not quite equal to the increased cost."

I humbly beg to join issue with him on this last statement. I urge the proposition that if the increased education now to be obtained in the Fifth Form in the Public School at a cost per pupil of \$8.54, is to be acquired and for some to be repeated simply in Forms I. and II, of the High School by a forced entrance into one or the other of them by the present system, at a cost per pupil of \$35.80, then I fail utterly to see the advantage to the community at all, much less "equal to the increased cost," which is exactly \$27.26 per pupil. It can be asked with irresistible confidence, why spend \$35.80 when you need to spend only \$8.54? This extra outlay last year amounted to the large sum of \$520,000.

This may be said to be a serious impairment of the efficiency of the Public or National Schools for a *class*, for the Hon. the Minister of Education practically admits on page XIII. of his report that the High Schools are largely for the qualification of teachers. Admitting what he says, why could not these teachers obtain in the Fifth Form (at a cost of \$8.54) what they get in Forms I. and II. of the High School (at a cost of \$35.80) and thereafter use Forms III. and IV. in the High School to perfect their professional knowledge?

He further says on page XIV., "To develop citizenship, however, by levelling down rather than levelling up, is not the order of experience." No one will dispute this statement. But I maintain the remark does not apply in this case. When we find in the same report on page 60 that the total number of pupils attending the Public Schools in 1894 was 481,068, and only 23,055 attending the High Schools, or a proportion of 2 to 48, can it be said we are trying to level down rather than upwards when we are asking for increased education for the 450,000 who complete their studies in the Public Schools and never reach the High Schools at all? Certainly not.

It cannot be doubted, then, that it is the duty of every delegate here who represents the School Boards in his locality, which Boards represent the people, to do his best to level up, rather than perpetuate the present levelling down system, and to see that these 450,000 chil-

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dren of our country, who have to begin the battle of life without reaching the High Schools, are as thoroughly equipped for the battle as our National Schools can equip them, by making the Fifth Form efficient, and for those who are fortunate enough to be able to go on to the High Schools, place the High School in such a position with regard to its curriculum as not to impede the progress of the pupil by overlapping studies. The inevitable result would then be increased efficiency of both schools, and the double advantage gained of preparing the pupil in the Fifth Form for \$8.54 and placing him in the High School matured, intellectually, to grasp the higher branches at once. Any person who has been a close observer knows that children sent to school at too early an age do not advance so fast nor so perfectly as those who go later. This reasoning holds good also as to High School pupils. The better they are equipped in the English subjects in the Fifth Form, the better are they qualified to grasp more speedily and successfully the higher studies. I know this from practical observation, and I maintain that a child at thirteen or even fourteen years of age properly taught in the Fifth Form is in better condition, mentally and physically, to commence the Classics and attain better results in the same length of time than pupils who start therein much earlier and less efficiently equipped. For any one knows, the better one is as an English scholar, the easier he can master the languages, for our native tongue is a composite of all. This feature at first seemed to be the only barrier to the withdrawal of Forms I and II from the High School, but when analyzed there is nothing in it. The High Schools are then left to do their proper work, the teachers can then devote all of their time to the higher subjects, and not be, as now, so crowded for time because of the primary subjects as to be compelled in a measure to neglect all, time not sufficing to do justice to all.

A few statistics taken from the last report of the Minister of Education may not be uninteresting. The total registered attendance at the Public Schools was 481,068. At the High Schools, 23,055. Of the 23,055 in the High Schools, 18,620 are in Forms I and II—leaving only 4,435 for Forms III and IV. Of these 4,435 only 1,275 are in the Foarth Form. This is about the same proportion as is maintained from year to year. So that, taking the 18,620 out of Forms I and II, and educating them in the Fifth Form in the Public Schools (thereby saving the country \$520,000, or thereabouts annually)—you also properly educate, from a national standpoint, the 450,000 pupils who are not now so educated ; and you make the High School thoroughly efficient to do its proper work without additional cost.

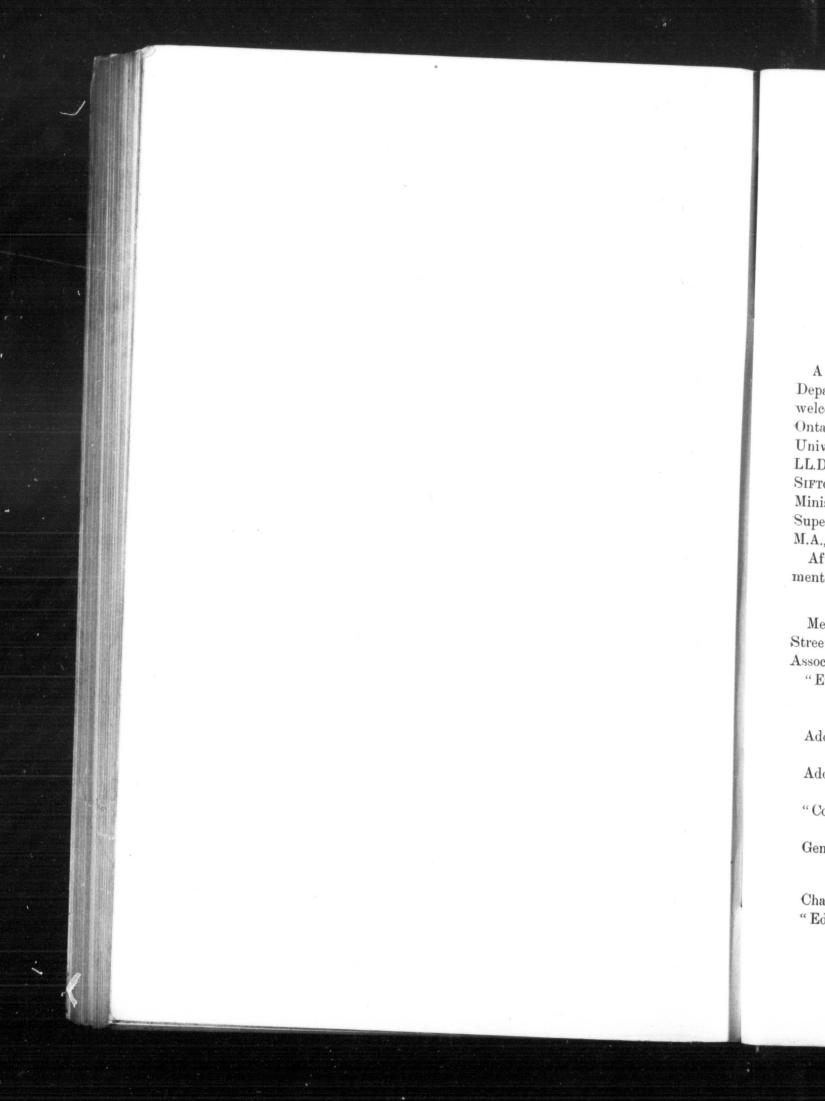
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FIFTH FORM IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

I would, then, respectfully urge that the Honorable the Minister of Education be memorialized to follow up his good beginning by doing away, as soon as practicable, with the Entrance Examination, making the Public School Leaving Examination the standard of entrance to the High School; and by recasting, or reconstructing the curriculum of the High School so that there will be no overlapping of subjects, but a levelling up as it were, to make the two schools in harmony, one leading up to the other.

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APPENDIX.

OFFICERS AND PROGRAMMES, 1894-95.

General Association.

PROGRAMME.

TUESDAY, APRIL 16TH, 8 P.M.

A Public Reception will be held in the Hall of the Education Department, when the following gentlemen will deliver addresses of welcome: Mayor KENNEDY, Toronto; S. F. LAZIER, LL.B., President Ontario Educational Association; J. LOUDON, M.A., LL.D., President University of Toronto. Replies will be made by Hon. G. W. Ross, LL.D., President Dominion Educational Association; Hon. CLIFFORD SIFTON, Attorney-General, Manitoba; Colonel the Hon. JAMES BAKER, Minister of Education, British Columbia; Hon. GIDEON OUIMET, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Quebec; and A. H. MCKAY, M.A., Chief Superintendent of Education, Nova Scotia.

After the Reception a Conversazione will be held in the Departmental Buildings.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH, 8 P.M.

Meeting to be held in Y. W. C. G. Hall on McGill Street, near Yonge Street. Chairman: S. F. LAZIER, LL.B., President Ontario Educational Association.

"Ethical Instruction in Public and High Schools." RICHARD G. BOONE, LL.D., Principal State Normal School, Ypsilanti, Michigan.

Address. A. H. McKAY, M.A., Chief Superintendent of Education, Nova Scotia.
Address. Hon. GIDEON OUVER Scotian Scotian

Address. Hon. GIDEON OUIMET, Superintendent of Education, Quebec.
"College Discipline." THOMAS ADAMS M.A. Principal Disland.

"College Discipline." THOMAS ADAMS, M.A., Principal Bishop's College, Lennoxville, Que.

General Business, Election of Officers, Notices of Motion, Reports, etc.

THURSDAY, APRIL 18TH, 8 P.M.

Chairman : Hon. G. W. Ross, LL D.

"Educational Tendencies of the Age." A. E. WINSHIP, M.A., Editor New England Magazine.

 "Diagnosis of Brain Power." Colonel the Hon. JAMES BAKER, Minister of Education, British Columbia. "Some Pedagogic Fallacies." J. M. HARPER, M.A., Inspector of Superior Schools, Quebec. Address. Rev. R. I. REXFORD, M.A., Principal High School, Montreal. General Business. 	2. 3.
College and Higb School Department.	
OFFICERS :- Chairman, J. A. McLellan, LL.D.; Secretary, J. Squair, B.A.	2.0
DIRECTORS : W. H. Fraser, B.A.; H. B. Spotton, M.A.; W. S. Milner, B.A.; F. F. Manley, M.A.	2.4
PROGRAMME.	3.3
WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH, 9.30 A.M.	
Receiving Reports of Committees, and other business. Chairman's Address—"Co-ordination and Concentration." J. A. MCLELLAN, LL.D., Toronto.	2.00 2.45
THURSDAY, APRIL 18TH, 9.30 A.M.	3,3(
 Election of Officers. "Secondary and Higher Education in Ontario." WILLIAM DALE, M.A., Toronto. "The Economics of Education in Ontario." N. BURWASH, S.T.D., LL.D., Toronto. 	OF C. Fe Treus
The Modern Language Association.	Cou
OFFICERS :- President, J. Squair, B.A.; Vice-President, D. R. Keys, M.A.; Secretary-Treasurer, W. H. Fraser, B.A.	Hami

COUNCILLORS :- W. J. Alexander, Ph.D.; M. S. Clark, B.A.; A. W. Burt, B.A.; W. J. Sykes, B.A.; E. A. Hardy, B.A.; Geo. E. Shaw, B.A.; Miss E. Balmer, B.A.; J. Petch, M.A.

PROGRAMME.

TUESDAY, APRIL 16TH.

10.00 a.m.-President's Address: "French Literature since the Romantics." J. SQUAIR, B.A., Toronto.

11.00 a.m.—"A Consideration of the Report of the Committee of Ten on English." S. J. RADCLIFFE, B.A., London.

2.00 p.m.-"Certain Illogical Constructions in English." J. MARSHALL, M.A., St. Thomas.

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APPENDIX.

2.45 p.m.—" A Development Study in French Drama: Corneille-Hugo." J. N. DALES, B.A., Kingston.

3.30 p.m.—" Supplementary Reading—its Theory and Practice." W. PAKENHAM, B.A., Brockville, and E. S. HOGARTH, B.A., Hamilton.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH.

2.00 p.m.--" The Function of English Poetry in the High School." MISS G. LAWLER, M.A., Toronto.

2.45 p.m.-" A Review of Methods and Results in Modern Language Teaching." GEO. E. SHAW, B.A., Toronto. 3.30 p.m.-Election of Officers, and other business.

THURSDAY, APRIL 18TH.

2.00 p.m.-" Some of the Tendencies of the German Literature of the Nineteenth Century." MISS A. E. MARTY, St. Thomas. 2.45 p.m.—"Chaucer's Mind and Art." A. H. REYNAR, LL.D., Toronto.

3.30 p.m.—"Aims and Methods in the Teaching of English Grammar." J. JEFFRIES, B.A., Peterborough.

Science Association.

OFFICERS :- Hon. President, A. B. Macallum, M.D., Ph.D.; Chairman, C. Fessenden, M.A.; Vice-Chairman, J. B. Turner, M.A.; Secretary-Treasurer, T. H. SMYTH, M.A., B.Sc. COUNCILLORS :- N. MacMurchy, J. J. Hare, W. H. Jenkins, J. R. Hamilton, Miss J. Panton.

PROGRAMME.

TUESDAY, APRIL 16TH.

3 p.m.-Address by the Chairman, C. FESSENDEN, M.A. 4 p.m.-Is Senior Leaving Physics to be Experimental? GENERAL DISCUSSION. 8 p.m.- General Meeting of the Sections.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH.

10 a.m.-Address by the Honorary President, A. B. MACALLUM, Ph.D. 11 a.m.-Election of Officers. 2 p.m.—"Practical Examinations in Science." J. B. TURNER, M.A. 3 p.m.-Professional Training in Science Teaching. GENERAL DIS-CUSSION.

4 p.m. - "Induction Currents." T. H. SMYTH, M.A., B.Sc. 51

THURSDAY, APRIL 18TH.

10 a.m.—" Flying Machines." C. FESSENDEN, M.A. 11 a.m.—Examination Papers in Science. GENERAL DISCUSSION.

The Classical Association.

OFFICERS :- President, H. I. Strang, M.A.; Vice-President, J. E. Hodgson, M.A.; Secretary-Treasurer, W. S. Milner, B.A.

COUNCILLORS:-W. Dale, M.A., A. J. Bell, Ph.D., J. Fletcher, M.A., I. M. Levan, B.A., W. M. Logan, M.A., P. C. McGregor, B.A., J. C. Robertson, B.A., L. C. Smith, B.A.

PROGRAMME.

TUESDAY, APRIL 16TH, 10 to 12 A.M.

"Cæsar as a General." H. R. H. KENNER, B.A.

"More Words that will not Parse." D. THOMSON, B.A.

"The Imperfect Tense in Cæsar." W. J. FENTON, B.A.

2 TO 5 P.M.

" The Broader Characteristics of Cæsar's Style." E. W. HAGARTY, B.A., Toronto.

"Military Tactics in Xenophon and Cæsar." O. J. JOLLIFFE, M.A., Ottawa.

" The Literary and Historical Significance of Cæsar's Commentaries." W. DALE, M.A., Toronto.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH, 2 TO 5 P.M.

Election of Officers, etc.

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"The Place and Limits of the Study of the Greek and Latin Classics." The Rev. CHANCELLOR BURWASH.

"Some notes on Virgil." W. S. MILNER, B.A., Toronto.

THURSDAY, APRIL 18TH, 2 TO 5 P.M.

Reports of Committees, etc.

"The Effects of the Departmental Regulations upon the Study of Classics in our High Schools." G. W. MITCHELL, M.A. "Problems in Syntax." F. W. SHIPLEY, B.A. Or DeLa . surer Ex J. Da

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The Mathematical and Physical Association.

OFFICERS :- Hon. President, Alfred Baker, M.A.; President, A. T. DeLury, M.A.; Vice-President, R. A. Thompson, M.A.; Secretary-Treasurer, Fred. F. MANLEY, M.A.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE :- R. A. Gray, B.A., T. W. Standing, B.A., J. Davison, B.A., C. A. Chant, B.A., A. H. McDougall, M.A.

PROGRAMME.

TUESDAY, APRIL 16TH, 2 TO 5 P.M.

Honorary President's Address. ALFRED BAKER, M.A., Toronto. President's Address. A. T. DELURY, M.A., Toronto.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH, 2 TO 5 P.M.

"The Mathematical Curriculum in the Secondary Schools." R. A. ТНОМРЗОN, M.A., Hamilton.

"Experimental Physics." C. A. CHANT, B.A., Toronto.

"The Connection between Geometry and Algebra." N. F. DUPUIS, LL.D., Kingston.

THURSDAY, APRIL 18TH, 2 TO 5 P.M.

"Has Mathematical Education in Ontario declined during Recent Years?" A. H. McDougall, M.A., Ottawa. Election of Officers.

Public School Department.

[•] OFFICERS :— Chairman, Alexander McQueen, London; Secretary, D. Young, Guelph; Director, R. H. Cowley, Ottawa.

PROGRAMME.

TUESDAY, APRIL 16TH, 10 A.M.

1.—Minutes of 1894.

- 2.—Report of the Committee appointed to present the Resolution of 1894 to the Minister of Education.
- 3.—President's Address: Mr. A. McQueen, London.
- 4.—" Entrance Examinations." Mr. W. P. McMASTER, East Toronto.
- 5.—" Examiners on Entrance Examinations." Mr. R. P. EDDY, Claremont.
- 6.—" The Public School Leaving Examination." Mr. J. STRACHAN, Rockwood.

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WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH. 9 A.M.

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7.—" Intuitions of Number." S. P. ROBINS, M.A., LL.D., Principal McGill Normal School, Montreal.
8.— Report of the Committee of the M
8.—Report of the Committee of the Wentworth Teachers' Association
and Full full School Leaving Examinations 1904"
- AL DAINION, WALEFOOWN
9.—" Public Schools—their true place in a System of National Education." Mr. David Superson Statistics
MILL DAVID STEWART Shmolour
10.—Resolutions of the Waterloo Teachers' Association
a.—That the Model and Normal School terms be extended to
at least one year.
b.—That Candidates for the Model School hold at least a
Junior Leaving Certificate.
c.—That the amount given be the
c.—That the amount given by the township to the school
section be \$200 for each section; and \$100 for each assistant.
assistant.
d.—That the age of Candidates for admission to the profession
of not less than twenty one
11.—Business, Election of Officers, Committees, etc.
THURSDAY, APRIL 18TH, 9 A.M.
12.—Resolutions of the West Lambton Teachers' Institute :
a.—That it is desirable to have a Public School Leaving Exam-
ination.
b.—That the course shall extend two years after the Entrance.
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d.—That the course for the Public School Leaving Examina-
shall be especially adapted to pupils who do not
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e.—Inat pupils shall pass the Entrance before taking
course, or de recommandad by the r
Resolution of the East Leeds Teachers' Association re History
Resolution of the Durham Teachers' Association re Primary and Junior Leaving Examination
Junior Leaving Examinations.
"The D in the aving Examinations.

13.—" The Brotherhood of Teachers." G. J. OULTON, Dorchester, N. B. 14.-Address by Hon. G. W. Ross, LL D., Minister of Education.

15.—" The Country Schools." Mr. J. H. PUTMAN, Ottawa.

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16.—"Conservatism in the Teaching Profession." Mr. E. T. YOUNG, Guelph.

17.--" City Public Schools-some of their Disadvantages." Mr. J. W. GARVIN, B.A., Peterborough.

18.—" Grouping Subjects for Examinations and Grading Certificates." Mr. H. HUSBAND, Oakville.

Kindergarten Department.

OFFICERS :- Chairman, Miss Mary Macintyre, Toronto; Secretary, Miss F. Bowditch, Hamilton; Director, Miss J. Laidlaw, London.

PROGRAMME.

TUESDAY, APRIL 16TH, 9 TO 12 A.M.

- 1. General business.
- 2. President's Address. MISS MACINTYRE.
- 3. "Morning Talks as a Basis for Science Work in all Grades." MISS BOLTON.
- 4. "Transition Class Work." MISS O'GRADY.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH, 9 TO 12 A.M.

- 1. Address. Hon. G. W. Ross, LL.D.
- 2. "What the Child Says and Does." MISS JEAN LAIDLAW.

3. Election of Officers.

THURSDAY, APRIL 18TH, 9 TO 12 A.M.

- 1. Address. Mrs. L. T. NEWCOMB, Fredonia, N.Y.
- 2. Paper (subject to be chosen). MISS E. HENDERSON, Montreal High School.
- 3. "History of the Kindergarten Movement in Ontario." MRS. ADA M. HUGHES, Toronto.
- 4. Answers to Question Drawer.
- 5. Reports of Committees.

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OFFICERS :- Chairman, A. Barber, Cobourg ; Secretary, W. H. Elliott, B.A., Hamilton ; Director, S. B. Sinclair, B.A., Ottawa.

PROGRAMME.

TUESDAY, APRIL 16TH.

- 9.30 a.m.—" Report of Committee on Public School Studies and Limits." W. HOUSTON, M.A., Toronto.
- 10.30 a.m.-" Child Study." F. TRACY, Ph.D., Toronto.

11.15 a.m.—" Educational Psychology." J. A. McLellan, LL.D., Toronto.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH.

- 9.00 a.m.—Report of Committee on Qualifications of Model School Masters.
- 10.00 a.m.--" Definite Methods of Child-Study." S. B. SINCLAIR, B.A., Ottawa.

11.00 a.m.—" The Value of Deportment to the Teacher." W. Scorr, B.A., Toronto.

THURSDAY, APRIL 18TH.

9.00 a.m.—Election of Officers.

9.30 a.m.—General discussion, "Provincial versus County Board of Examiners for Primary Professional Certificates," to be introduced by the CHAIRMAN.

10.30 a.m.—" School Exhibitions." M. E. ARCHAMBAULT, Principal Boys' High School, Montreal.

Inspectors' Department.

OFFICERS :--Chairman, G. D. Platt, Picton; Secretary, N. Gordon, Orangeville; Director, N. W. Campbell, Durham.

PROGRAMME.

TUESDAY, APRIL 16TH, 10 A.M.

- 1. "Uniformity in Registering and Reporting School Attendance." D. FOTHERINGHAM, Toronto.
- 2. "Should the Public School Programme be Revised?" N. W. CAMPBELL, Durham.

3. "Auditing School Accounts." DR. KELLY, Brantford.

4. "Concentric Instruction." J. B. HALL, Ph.D., Truro, N.S.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 17TH, 9 A.M.

- 1. "The Model School Course and Text-books." A. EMBURY, Brampton.
- 2. "How to Retain our Experienced Teachers." W. MACKINTOSH, Madoc.
- 3. "Teaching Model Lesson at Inspectoral Visits." J. DEARNESS, London.
- 4. "Some Original Methods for Primary Grades." J. W. GARVIN, Peterborough.
- 5. "Text-books for Schools." A. H. MCKAY, Supervisor of Schools, Halifax.

THURSDAY, APRIL 18TH, 9 A.M.

- 1. "The Relation of Inspectors to Trustee Boards." DR. McDIARMID.
- 2. "Odds and Ends." REV. THOS. MCKEE, Barrie.
- 3. "Programmes for Ungraded Schools." J. S. DEACON, Milton.
- 4. "Music." A. T. CRINGAN, Toronto.

Public and High School Trustees' Department.

OFFICERS: — Chairman, John Ball Dow, B.A., Whitby; Secretary, Geo. Anson Aylesworth, Newburgh; Director, Rev. G. G. McRobbie, Ph.B., Sc.D., Shelburne.

PROGRAMME.

- 1.—The Chairman's Address, introducing for discussion (among other things) (a) The cost of High Schools—Should maintenance (High School Act, 1891), include interest on cost of buildings? (b) High School Pupils' Fees (Minutes 1893, pp. 9-14); (c) Entrance Examinations—Where should they be held? Who should be examiners? How should answers be valued ?
- "The effect upon the High School Curriculum of the action of the University Senate in dividing the Matriculation Examination." (Minutes 1894, pp. 4 and 8.) Rev. Dr. MCROBBIE, Shelburne.
- 3.—" The Fifth Form in Public Schools." Mr. JAS. H. BURRITT'S paper (Minutes 1894).

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- 4.—Notice of Motion (Minutes 1894, p. 5), "That the Honorable the Minister of Education be respectfully requested to consider the expediency and justice of making a more equitable distribution of the public money between the High and Public Schools respectively." Col. JAS. DEACON, Lindsay.
- 5.—"The new powers of Municipal Councils to borrow money, and pay it in monthly instalments to School Boards." (Ontario Statutes, 57 Vic., c. 50.)
- 6.—" Departmental Examiners' greater latitude in passing candidates." (Minutes 1894, pp. 4 and 8.)
- 7.—"The approaching revision of the School Laws." (Minutes 1891, p. 12.)

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